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LIFE OF CARDINAL RICHELIEU.

WITH AN ELEGANT HEAD.

ARMAND du Pleffis-Richelieu, infatuating disposition, his engaging manners, and, above all, by the interest of the Marchioness de Guercheville, first maid of honour to the Queen Mary de Medicis, then regent of the kingdom. He was so much in favour with this princess that she appointed him her grand almoner, and soon after he was promoted to be secretary of state. By letters patent, dated the 30th of November, 1616, it was ordered that he should take precedence of all the other ministers, but this distinction he did not long enjoy. Falling into disgrace, after the death of Marshal D'Ancre, his friend and patron, he retired to the queen mother, at Blois, to which place she had been exiled. This princess having quarrelled with her son, Richelieu took advantage of that division, to recover his former consequence. He brought about a reconciliation between the mother and the son, and a nomination to the cardinalship was his reward for this service. The Duke De Luynes, who

descended of an ancient family which took its name from the lands of du Pleffis, in Poitou, was born at Paris on the 5th of September, 1585. At a very early period he gave proofs of a happy genius, and his education being entrusted to the care of able masters, he soon shewed that the hopes entertained of his rising to eminence were well founded. After finishing his course of studies at the Sorbonne, he went to Rome, where he was consecrated Bishop of Luçon, in 1607, when he was only 22 years of age. It is said that he employed deception to procure a bull from Pope Paul V. by making him believe that he was two years older; and that he afterwards demanded absolution for having told this falsehood. It is added, that his eminence, upon this occasion, said, "This young bishop has abilities, but he will one day be a great villain." When Richelieu returned to France, he soon made his way at court, by his

banished him to Avignon, had promised to procure him that honour; he kept his word, and gave his nephew Combalet in marriage to Mademoiselle de Wignerod, afterwards Duchess of Aiguillon.

After the death of that favourite, the queen, being placed at the head of the council, procured Richelieu a seat at the board, for, as she proposed to govern by his means, she importuned the king to give him a share in the administration of public affairs. Almost all the memoirs of that period mention the repugnance which the king shewed against admitting him into office, for he then considered him as a deceitful person, and altogether unworthy of his confidence. "You do not know him," said the prince to his mother; "he is a man of unbounded ambition." Louis XIII. even reproached him on account of his profligate morals, and, indeed, it must be allowed that he had just cause for doing so. The gallantries of the cardinal were notorious, and even carried on in a most ridiculous manner, for he often dressed like a fine gentleman, and after writing upon theology, he made love in the character of a beau. It is asserted, that he carried the temerity of his desires, either real or affected, so far as to pay his addresses to the Queen, Ann of Austria, which exposed him to railery that he could never forgive. In consequence of his turn for intrigue, he caused *Theses on Love*, after the manner of the *Theses* of the Sorbonne, to be maintained at the house of his niece, and, on this account, Louis XIII. who was a pious and good prince, made some difficulty to admit him into the ministry; but the cardinal found means to overcome all the objections of his sovereign.

Richelieu at first pretended that he was incapable of supporting the fatigues of a high office. His bad health, he said, rendered it necessary for him to withdraw from the laborious bustle of state affairs, but he soon found means to get almost all the old

ministers dismissed. La Vieuville, the superintendant who had handed him forward to promotion, was the first who fell a sacrifice to his ambition, at the end of six months. This minister had begun a négociation for concluding a marriage between the sister of Louis XIII. and the son of Charles I. King of England; and the cardinal finished the treaty, though opposed by the courts of Rome and Madrid, in the year 1625. The preceding year he had been promoted to be prime minister and president of the council, and two years after he was appointed superintendant general of commerce and navigation. By Richelieu's vigilance, the year following the Isle of Re was saved, and the siege of Rochelle undertaken. This place, the bulwark of Calvinism, was, as one may say, a state within a state. Possessing then almost as many ships as the king, it endeavoured to copy the example of Holland, and might have accomplished its end, had it found sufficient assistance amongst those of its own sect. The cardinal, being determined to extirpate the Protestant party entirely, thought it necessary to begin by attacking their strongest hold, and after a most obstinate siege, the city was obliged to surrender at discretion, on the 28th of October, 1628. To subdue it, he had employed all possible means; ships built in haste, moles, a strong army, artillery, and even the assistance of Spain. During the siege, he himself commanded, in quality of general. This was his first attempt in the military line, and he sufficiently shewed that genius can supply all deficiencies. As exact in establishing discipline among the troops, as attentive to restore good order at Paris, he said, when the place surrendered, that he had taken it in spite of three kings; the King of Spain, who had withdrawn his troops, the King of England, who had sent assistance to the besieged, and the King of France, who had been advised by his courtiers not to countenance the expedition, from a fear that

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the success of it might render his prime minister absolute—a fear which was, indeed, too well founded.

When Rochelle was reduced, the cardinal marched towards the other provinces, in order that he might deprive the reformers of part of their strong places, and after establishing peace in the kingdom, he began to think of carrying the flames of war into the neighbouring states. What had been apprehended from his elevation, in reality happened. The king had given him a patent, written by his own hand, and replete with the most flattering encomiums, for holding the place of prime minister. His pomp then eclipsed the dignity of the throne; he was attended by guards; he displayed all the magnificence of royalty, and all authority resided in him. War being declared against the house of Austria, the cardinal caused himself to be appointed generalissimo of the army, sent to Italy to assist the Duke de Nevers, to whom the emperor refused the investiture of the Duchy of Mantua; and the king, in his instructions, ordered that he should be obeyed in the same manner as if he himself were present. The minister, therefore, discharging the office of constable, and having under him two marshals of France, passed the Loire on the night between the 17th and 18th of March, 1630, and advanced as far as Rivoli, during very tempestuous weather. The new general, however, heard nothing but imprecations uttered against him, and as he was as much hurt by satire as gratified with praises, he wished to make the soldiers be silent; but he was diverted from his design: and when his army was quartered in the town of Rivoli, he heard the same soldiers who had cursed him load him with benedictions. Being highly pleased with this change, he immediately attacked Pignerol, relieved Casal, and took possession of all Savoy.

At this period, Louis XIII. was dying at Lyons, where the queen mother requested him, with tears in

her eyes, to discard that minister who had rendered him a conqueror. The king yielded to her entreaties, and the princeps carried back her son to Paris, after having made him promise that he would dismiss the cardinal as soon as the war in Italy should be ended. Richelieu now thought himself ruined, and resolved to retire to Havre de Grace, but the Cardinal de la Valette advised him to make his last attempt with the king. In consequence of this, he waited upon his majesty at Versailles, to which the queen mother had not attended him, and was fortunate enough to convince him of the need he had of his service, and of the injustice of his enemies. Louis, who had sacrificed his minister through weakness, says Voltaire, “committed himself again into his hands, abandoned those who had conspired to ruin him; and they were all consequently dismissed.” That day, which is still called the *day of dupes*, was the commencement of the cardinal’s absolute power. Marillac, keeper of the seals, and his brother, the marshal, both lost their lives, the one in prison and the other on the scaffold.

In the midst of these sacrifices, to his vengeance, he concluded, with Gustavus Adolphus, on the 23d of January, 1631, that treaty which was about to shake the throne of Ferdinand II. Richelieu formed a league at the same time with the Duke of Bavaria, and entered also into a very advantageous treaty with Savoy; but whilst he was acquiring so much glory abroad, he had a number of enemies to contend with at home. Gaston, Duke of Orleans, being unable to endure his tyrannical government, retired to Lorraine, protesting that he would never return to the kingdom whilst the cardinal, the persecutor of his mother and that of his brother, ruled in it with absolute authority. Richelieu, by a decree of council, caused the friends of the Duke of Orleans to be declared guilty of high treason, and after having compelled the

the heir presumptive to the crown to quit the court, he did not hesitate to cause the queen mother, Mary de Medicis, to whom he owed his fortune, to be arrested. This princess, sacrificed by her son to an ungrateful favourite, whom she had raised to eminence, went, to finish the remainder of her days, in a voluntary but painful exile, while her persecutor established a chamber of justice, in which all her partizans, and those of her son Gaston, were condemned. Every day men or women, who had supported or advised Gaston and the queen, were seen hung in effigy, and the friends, the favourites, the domestics, and even the physician of that unfortunate princess, were conducted to the Bastille and to other prisons. Search was made even for astrologers, who had predicted that *the king would not live long*, and two of them were condemned to the galleys.

Under the administration of Richelieu, the Bastille was continually full. Marshal Bassompierre, suspected only of not being in the cardinal's interest, was confined during the remainder of that minister's life. On account of this act of injustice, an universal murmur was excited throughout the whole kingdom, but there was scarcely any one who dared to speak his sentiments freely. Nobody but the Duke de Montmorenci, governor of Languedoc, thought it necessary to brave the fortune of the cardinal. This nobleman flattered himself with the hopes of becoming the head of a party, and raised the standard of revolt, in compliance with the wishes of the Duke of Orleans, who deserted him, and Montmorenci fell a victim, on the scaffold, in 1632, to the vindictive spirit of the cardinal. If it be true that it was he who discovered to Richelieu the plots formed against him at Lyons, he must have repented of a service that in the end proved fatal to him. Every cabal, however, was crushed under the power of this kingly minister, and yet seldom a day passed which did not

give birth to some intrigue or faction. It is pretended that the Duchess of Chevreuse, always intriguing and still pretty, excited in the cardinal that passion with which she was desirous of inspiring him. The commander of Jars, and several others, were admitted as confidants, and the Queen, Anne wife of Louis XIII. had no other consolation, under the loss of her credit, than to assist the Duchess of Chevreuse, to humble, by her ridicule, him whom she could not ruin. The duchess pretended to be fond of the cardinal, and formed intrigues, in expectation of his death, which frequent fits of illness seemed to indicate to be as near as they wished for: an epithet of contempt always used by that cabal when they mentioned the cardinal, gave him the greatest offence. The keeper of the seals was thrown into prison, without any trial, because he could not, with justice, be brought to one, and the commander of Jars, with some others, who were accused of keeping up a correspondence with the king's brother and mother, were condemned, by commissioners, to lose their heads. The commander received a pardon when on the scaffold, but the rest were executed according to their sentence. The spirit of persecution was extended not only to subjects who were accused of being in the interests of Gaston, but the Duke of Lorraine, Charles IV. fell also a victim to it, and he was stripped of his territories, because he had consented to the marriage of that prince with Margaret of Lorraine. The cardinal wished to annul this union, in order that if Gaston and Margaret should have a son, that prince, heir to the kingdom, might be considered as a bastard, and incapable of inheriting. The court of Rome, and foreign universities, having, however, determined that the marriage was valid, the cardinal ordered it to be declared void, by an arret of parliament. This obstinacy of persecuting the king's brother, of taking from him his wife, and depriving him of his bro-

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brother-in-law, gave rise to new conspiracies, in which the Count de Soissons and the Duke de Bouillon had a share, and they could not have chosen a more favourable opportunity.

The bad success of the German war which the cardinal had undertaken, exposed him to the resentment of the king, who had appointed Gaston lieutenant-general of his army. His antagonist, discouraged, wished to retire from the ministry, "and he would have been guilty of this folly," says Siri, "had it not been for Father Joseph, a capuchin, who prevented him."

During the course of this war, the Count de Soissons formed a plot to destroy the cardinal. A resolution was entered into of assassinating him even in the palace, but Gaston, who never did things but by halves, revolting at the attempt, either through religion or fear, did not give the signal agreed on by the conspirators.

In the midst of these alarms, which Richelieu was continually in, from his fears, he founded the French academy, and in his palace exhibited theatrical pieces, in the composition of some of which he himself assisted: he established also the royal printing office, rebuilt the Sorbonne, erected the Palace Royal, formed that botanical garden, called the *King's Garden*, and, what is much less deserving of praise, first fomented the dissensions in England, and wrote the following note, which seemed to predict the misfortunes of Charles I. "*The King of England, before the expiration of a year, will find that he must not despise me.*"

Whilst the cardinal was exciting the hatred of the English towards their sovereign, new plots were forming in France against him. Mademoiselle de la Fayette, whom the king honoured with his confidence, was obliged, on account of the cardinal's jealousy, to retire from court. The Jesuit Causin, the king's confessor, who had employed her influence to cause the queen-mother to be recalled, was banished to lower

Brittany, and the minister got the better both of the mistress and the confessor. The queen, because she had written to the duchess of Chevreuse, who was a fugitive and an enemy to the cardinal, was treated as a criminal, her papers were seized, and she was subjected to an examination before the chancellor Seguier. Madam D'Hautfort, equally attached to the king as to the queen, and on this account exciting uneasiness in the mind of the jealous minister, was disgraced. In their room the cardinal substituted young Cinq-Mars, son to the marshal D'Esiat, who soon excited his jealousy also: this young man being appointed master of the horse, wished to be a member of the council; the cardinal opposed him in this design; Cinq-Mars, therefore, determined to destroy him, and to this he was encouraged even by the king himself. His majesty, often discontented with his minister, offended with his pride, his haughtiness, and even his merit, and vexed at being reduced to the power only of curing the king's evil, entrusted his favourite with the causes of his discontent, and spoke of the cardinal with so much severity, that he in some measure authorized him several times to propose to assassinate him. This young courtier, therefore, formed an intimacy with Gaston and the duke of Bouillon. Their intention was to destroy the cardinal; and, in order to succeed better, they entered into a treaty with Spain, which engaged to send a body of troops into France. The cardinal's good fortune, however, would have it that the plot should be discovered, and a copy of the treaty falling into his hands, Cinq-Mars and his friend de Thou were both put to death. The queen-mother herself was privy to the conspiracy; but, as she was not accused, she escaped those mortifications which she would otherwise have experienced. In his vengeance, the cardinal displayed all the severity of his haughtiness; Cinq-Mars was dragged from Tarascon to Lyons, on the Rhone, in a boat attached to his, whilst he himself was almost

almost in the arms of death; from the latter place, the cardinal made himself be transported to Paris on the shoulders of his guards, placed in a kind of machine capable of containing a bed and two men to sit by him. The guards who carried him were relieved at certain distances, breaches were made in the walls of the different towns through which he passed, in order that his carriage might enter with more ease; and in this manner he was conveyed to Paris. The last days of his life he spent in great suffering, tormented with the most excruciating pain; and, when he saw death approaching, he seemed to meet it with fortitude and courage. Having pressed his physicians to tell him sincerely what they thought of his condition, and how long he might expect to live, they all replied, *that Heaven was interested in preserving a life so valuable and useful to mankind, and that God would perform a miracle in his favour.* Not satisfied, however, with being flattered when on the verge of the grave, he sent for Chicot, the king's physician, and begged him to tell him as a friend, whether he ought to entertain hopes of life, or prepare for another world: "In twenty-four hours," replied Chicot, like an honest man, "you will be either dead or cured." With this sincerity the cardinal appeared very well satisfied; he thanked Chicot, and told him, without the least emotion, that he perfectly understood what he meant. From that moment, Richelieu employed himself in preparing for his latter end, and expired on the 4th of December, 1642, aged fifty-eight. When he had breathed his last, the news of this event was immediately carried to the king, who only said coolly, "Well, then, a great politician is now no more."

After his death, an ill written, but very violent satire, was published against him, entitled, *The conversation of Cardinal Richelieu, when attempting to enter Paradise, and his descent into Hell: to which is added, the Farce of Cardinal Richelieu in Hell, in one act,*

and in verse, 1645. If the protestation be true, which he is said to have made to his confessor, when he asked him whether he forgave his enemies, *that he had no other enemies but those of the state,* he must have certainly been under a very great illusion. Those who have attempted to justify his bloody executions, should have considered well those acts of his ministry which are here faithfully represented in this sketch of his life. During the whole time of his being in office we find nothing but scaffolds erected, and heads cut off.

Richelieu was extremely suspicious, and he had great cause to be so. Desnoyers, his valet de chambre, was the only person whom he suffered to sleep in his apartment, and to guard him. One day, happening to look under the bed of this faithful domestic, he found two bottles of wine, and, imagining them to be poison, he compelled him to drink them both off in his presence.

To the king he bequeathed three millions of livres, a sum which he always kept in reserve. The expence of his household during the time of his being minister amounted to a thousand crowns per day. Every thing in his palace displayed the utmost pomp and magnificence, while, in that of his sovereign, nothing was seen but simplicity and negligence. When he went to wait upon his master, his guards entered even to the door of the apartment in which he had his audience; and he every where took precedence of the princes of the blood; in short, he wanted nothing of royalty but the crown: even when dying, he flattered himself with the hopes of surviving the king; and, in his last moments, he was taking measures for being regent of the kingdom.

Richelieu one day conversing with the marquis de Vieuville, gave a very just idea of his own character: "I dare not venture to undertake any thing," said he, "without having first well deliberated; but, when I have formed my resolution, I pursue my object, beat down all op-

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"position, and afterwards conceal the whole under my red caslock." He had, however, many obstacles to surmount; and the king, whom he appeared to manage in whatever manner he pleased, very often thwarted his designs: Richelieu, therefore, said, "That the closet of that prince, and the time he lay in bed before he fell asleep, occasioned more embarrassment to him than all Europe."

Though haughty and imperious, he had a mild and affable air, and received every body with much politeness. He stretched out his hand with seeming affection to those who came to speak to him; and, when he wished to gain them over to his party, he loaded them with praises and kindness. On his word people might always depend; and, when he promised a favour, one was certain of obtaining it. He was very zealous in serving his friends, and those to whom he was attached. His domestics considered him as the best of masters, and he rewarded them with that liberality which often formed a principal feature in his character.

Being desirous that his funeral even should partake of that grandeur with which he lived, he chose for the place of his interment the church of the Sorbonne, which he had rebuilt with a magnificence truly regal: a mausoleum was afterwards raised to his memory, which is considered as a masterpiece of that celebrated architect Girardon. What was said of this monument, *magnum disputandi argumentum*, is, according to Voltaire, the true character of his genius and actions. The lands of Richelieu were erected into a duchy in his favour in the month of August, 1631. He was also duke of Fronzac, governor of Bretagne, admiral of France, abbe general of Cluny, Citeaux, Premontré, &c.

Richelieu's works are, I. his *Political Testament*, the manuscript of which

was found in the library of the Sorbonne, to which it had been bequeathed by the Abbé des Roches, the cardinal's secretary; another copy was found also in the king's library, with a *Succinct Relation* added to it. This last copy was discovered only a few years ago, but the dispute which the celebrated Voltaire gave rise to, respecting the real author of this work, has never yet been decided. The best editions of it are those of 1737, by the Abbé St. Pierre, in two volumes duodecimo, and of 1764, at Paris, in two volumes octavo. Mr. de Foncemagne, who superintended the publication of the last, endeavours to prove the authenticity of this Testament in a preface written with much precision and neatness. However, those who believe it to be the production of the cardinal, find it equally learned and profound; but the elegant writer, who considers it as spurious, thinks of it in a manner less favourable. "The patience of the reader," says he, "can scarcely bear to go through it, and it would have been consigned to oblivion, had it appeared under a less illustrious name." A great king, surprised at his enmity to this work, sent him a copy of some pretty verses, which might have served to moderate his severity. They may be introduced here with great propriety, as they will serve to shew what opinion we ought to entertain of this work of the Ximenes of France.

Quelques vertus, plus de foiblesses,
Des grandeurs et des pêtinesses,
Sont le bizarre composé.
Du Héros le plus avisé
Il jette des traits de lumière;
Mais cette aître dans sa carrière
Ne brille pas d'un feu constant
L'effort le plus profond s'eclipse;
Richelieu fit son Testament
Et Newton son Apocalypse.*

II. A Method of Controversy on

* Some virtues, more weaknesses, greatness of mind, and meanness, form the whimsical composition of the most prudent hero. He emits rays of light, but this star, in its course, does not shine with equal brilliancy. The greatest geniuses often lose themselves. Richelieu composed his *Political Testament*, and Newton wrote *A Commentary on the Revelations*.

every Point of Faith, quarto. This work was written during his retreat at Avignon. III. *The principal Points of the Catholic Faith defended*, &c. IV. *Instructions for a Christian*, in octavo and duodecimo. V. *The Perfection of a Christian*, in quarto and octavo. VI. A very curious *Journal*, in octavo, and two volumes duodecimo. VII. His *Letters*, the fullest edition of which is that of 1696, in two volumes duodecimo. They are interesting, but this collection does not contain the whole. VIII. *Relations, Discourses, Memoirs, and Harangues*, &c. IX. He is said to be the author of the *History of the Mother and Son*, which appeared in 1731, in two volumes duodecimo, under the name of Mezerai. X. It is well known, that he had a hand in several dramatic pieces. He wrote, in part, the tragi-comedy of *Mirame*, which was published under the name of Saint Sorlin, and he furnished the plan and subject of three other comedies—the *Thulleries*, the *Blind Man of Smyrna*, and the heroic comedy entitled *Europa*, which he composed during his last illness.

Cardinal Richelieu may be considered as the father of the French

tragedy and comedy, on account of the passion which he shewed for that species of writing, and the favours he bestowed upon those who distinguished themselves in it. We are told that he caused some theatrical pieces to be composed by five different authors, distributing an act to each, and that by these means the piece was finished in less than a month. These five authors were Boissier, Pierre Corneille, Colletet, de l'Etoile, and Rotrou. The union of five authors so unequal in point of merit, proves that Richelieu had no taste, and that he paid for the good as well as the bad. He mistook bombast for the sublime, and extravagant sentiments for the beautiful expressions of nature.

Richelieu's works and verses, if we except his Testament, which is very ill written, and which undoubtedly must have been revised by some other hand, are, at present, considered as the refuse of libraries. If we except a smattering of scholastic theology, his learning was very confined, though he piqued himself upon being an universal scholar, and on excelling in every thing—even in riding.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE SAGACITY OF THE SPIDER.

AMONG all the insects, the spider appears to possess the greatest sagacity, and is at the same time formed by nature to be in a state to combat not only with other insects, but also against those of its own species. Its head and breast are covered with a very strong coat of mail, impenetrable to the attacks of other insects; its belly is enveloped with a soft and flexible skin, which eludes the sting of the wasp; its limbs are articulated, like those of the craw fish, each of them having at their extremities large nails, which serve to keep its assailants at a distance. The eyes of the spider are large, transparent, and covered with a scaly, transparent substance:

below his mouth are claws, or nippers, (*forceps*) which serve it either to destroy, or to make sure of, the prey which has fallen into its claws or into its web.

This insect seems to place still more confidence in its web than in its arms, either offensive or defensive; we know what art it employs in forming the snare. Nature has furnished it with a glutinous liquor, which it spins to what size it pleases, either by opening or contracting the sphincter muscles. In order to spin its thread, as soon as it begins its operations, it presses out a drop of the liquor, which, as it dries, forms the thread it draws out, as it diverges from

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its first position. When it reaches its intended distance, it draws this thread with its claws to stretch it properly, and fix it to the wall, as it did before it set off.

Thus it secures many threads parallel to each other, which serves it as a *warp* for its web. To form its *woof* it does the same thing transverse, by fixing one end to its outward threads, which is always the strongest, and the other to the wall. All these threads being nearly prepared, or spun, are glutinous: for which reason, they adhere to every thing they touch; and those parts which are the most subject to be torn, the spider secures by doubling them sometimes for six times.

The domestic spider usually renews its web in three days, although those which have before been made have not been destroyed. It has been observed, that a large spider of that species frequently goes round its web, and examines it in every place; that it frequently comes from its hole, and retires to it again. Let us hear what an attentive observer says, who has made many particular observations on the species of insect of which we are now speaking.

The chief enemy of the domestic spider, which this gentleman had a convenient opportunity of observing even in its hole, was another spider of a much larger size. The latter, not being able to spin any more web, came to invade the property of its neighbour; a terrible combat immediately ensued, in which victory seemed to incline to the side of the usurper; for the industrious spider was obliged to take refuge in its hole. After this the conqueror employed every method to draw the other from its retreat; it appeared to go away, but returned again quickly, and seeing all its artifices were in vain, it began to destroy the web of the vanquished; this brought on another combat, in which the laborious spider had the good fortune to slay its antagonist.

Then, in peaceable possession of what so justly belonged to it, it

passed three days in repairing the breaches done its web, and without taking any nourishment that our observer could perceive. After some time, a large blue fly fell into the net, and struggled violently to get loose; the spider at first let it alone, but seeing that it was too strong for its web, it came out of its hole, and in less than a minute, so completely enveloped the fly in a new thread that it had not the least use of its limbs, and, thus secured, dragged it into its retreat.

Thus the spider lived in this manner in a precarious state, to which nature seemed to have prepared it; it subsisted on this fly for a week. One day a wasp was thrown into the web, the spider, according to custom, ran towards it; but seeing what kind of enemy it had to combat, soon broke all the string which confined it, and did every thing in its power to get clear of so formidable an antagonist. As soon as the wasp was at liberty, I expected that the spider would have repaired the breaches made in its web, but they were irreparable; for it abandoned them entirely, and began a new one, which it ended in the usual time.

To see how many webs a spider was capable of furnishing, this new web was destroyed; it made another, which was likewise demolished; it now seemed exhausted, for it spun no more. The artifices it used, although deprived of its chief protection, are surprising: I observed it to draw up its claws, and then looked like a ball. It remained for four hours immovable, but always on its guard; when a fly approached near enough to it, it darted upon it, and seldom missed.

At last, as if disgusted with this kind of life, it determined to invade the possessions of another spider. It made an attack on a neighbouring fortification with much vigour, but was repulsed. Far from being discouraged by this repulse, it laid siege to another for three days, at the end of which it killed the proprietor, and took possession of the premises.

The spider does not dart down on the little flies immediately, which are taken in its web; for, at first view, terror gives the fly strength to endeavour to disengage itself, but patiently attends until it has exhausted its strength in unavailing efforts: in this manner it is always sure of its prey.

This spider lived for three years, and each year it changed its skin. The gentleman who made these remarks, says, it sometimes snatched off one of the animals claws, which was replaced by a new one, in two or three days. The spider, at first, was fearful when he came near it, but afterwards it became familiar, and if he touched any part of its web, it would put itself into a state of offence or defence.

The male spider was observed to be much smaller than the female, and they are oviparous: when they have laid their eggs, they envelope them carefully in a piece of their web; and, if they are obliged to fly, exert themselves to carry the eggs with them, and often perish victims to an attachment to their brood. As soon as the little ones are hatched, they begin to spin, and appear to grow even to the eye. If they have the good fortune to catch a fly, which they are able to do twenty-four hours after their birth, they seize on it voraciously; but sometimes the young live three or four days without any nourishment, and this does not prevent their increasing in bulk every day."

AN ACCOUNT OF THE BIRTH AND EDUCATION OF THE UNFORTUNATE PRINCE WHO WAS PRIVATELY CARRIED AWAY AND CONFINED BY ORDER OF LOUIS XIV.

FROM THE MEMOIRS OF THE MARSHALL DE RICHELIEU.*

THE unfortunate prince whom I educated, and had the care of till towards the close of my life, was born on the 5th of September, 1638, at half an hour after eight in the evening, while the king was at supper. His brother,† now on the throne, came into the world at noon, whilst his father was at dinner: but, if the birth of the king was splendid and brilliant, that of his brother was dismal, and concealed with the greatest care; for his majesty being informed by the midwife that the queen would bring forth another child, caused the chancellor, the grand almoner, the queen's confessor, and myself to remain in the apartment, to be witnesses of whatever might happen, and of what he meant to do should another child be born.

The king had been informed by fortune-tellers, some time before, that the queen would be brought to-bed of twins: some shepherds having come to Paris, pretended to be divinely inspired, and, after declaring that her majesty would bring forth two dauphins, affirmed, that this circumstance would occasion the ruin of the state. The archbishop of Paris, who sent for these prophets, ordered them to be confined at St. Lazare, because the people were much alarmed: and on this account, his majesty was very uneasy, as he apprehended some commotion in the kingdom. The cardinal, whom the king informed of this prophecy, told him that it would be necessary to take it into consideration, adding, that the birth of two dauphins was not an impossible thing;

* The story of the *Man with the Iron Mask* appears to be cleared up in a very satisfactory manner by these Memoirs. The duke of Orleans communicated this anecdote to his daughter, and that princess told it to the marshal de Richelieu, of whom she was remarkably fond. The editor of these *Memoirs* had it from the marshal's own mouth.

† Louis XIV.

and that, in such a case, the second must be carefully concealed, because he might some time or other wish to be king, and attack his brother, in order to support a second league in the kingdom, and to mount the throne.

Whilst the king, under a state of uncertainty, was agitated by these reflections, the cries of the queen gave us reason to apprehend that a second child was about to make its appearance. We, therefore, sent for his majesty, who almost fainted when he thought that he was become the father of two dauphins. When he entered, he begged the bishop of Meaux to assist the queen, adding, *do not quit my spouse till she is delivered; I am very uneasy for her*. Soon after, having called the bishop of Meaux, the chancellor, the Sieur Honorat, Peronnetti, the midwife, and myself, he told us in presence of the queen, in order that she might hear, that we should answer for it with our heads if we divulged the birth of a second dauphin; and that he wished it to be kept a state secret; to prevent those misfortunes which might thence arise, as the Salic law had said nothing respecting the inheritance of the kingdom in the case of twins.

What had been predicted happened, and the queen, while his majesty was at supper, brought forth another dauphin, smaller and prettier than the former, and who continually cried, as if it had been already sorry for entering into a world in which it was about to be exposed to so many sufferings. The chancellor drew up *procès verbal* of this wonderful birth, the only instance of the kind to be found in our history. His majesty, however, thought the *procès verbal* not properly done; on which account he burnt it in our presence, and ordered it to be written over again several times, until he was satisfied with it, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the almoner, who affirmed that his majesty could not conceal the birth of a prince; the king replied that he had a state reason for doing so.

The king then made us sign our

oath: the chancellor signed first, then the almoner, then the queen's confessor, and then myself. The oath was signed also by the surgeon and the midwife who delivered the queen; and the king affixed this piece to the *procès verb* I, which he carried away, and which I never afterwards heard any account of. I remember that his majesty conversed with the chancellor on the form of this oath, and that he spoke a long time in a low tone of voice with the cardinal. After this, the last born child was committed to the care of the midwife; and, as it was always apprehended that she might disclose his birth, she told me, that she was threatened with death in case she ever spoke of it. Even we, who had been witnesses to the birth, were forbidden to make mention of this child among ourselves.

Not one of us has yet broken his oath; for his majesty dreaded nothing so much as a civil war, which these children, both born at the same time, might have raised up, and the cardinal always fomented that fear when he got the management of the child's education. The king having ordered us to examine the child, we found that it had a wart below the left elbow, a yellowish spot on the right side of the neck; and a small wart on the thick part of the right thigh. His majesty's intention was to substitute this child for the former, in case it should happen to die; and, on this account, he required a certificate, with our signature, which he caused to be sealed with a small seal-royal in our presence. With regard to the shepherds who had prophesied concerning the birth, I never heard more of them, nor did I enquire for them. The cardinal, who took charge of the mysterious child, may perhaps have discovered them.

With respect to the infancy of the second prince, dame Peronnetti took charge of it; but it was considered as the bastard of some great lord of the time; because it was easily seen, from the care taken of it, and the money expended on its account, that its fa-

ther was rich, though he did not acknowledge it.

When the prince grew up, cardinal Mazarin, who, after cardinal Richelieu, was entrusted with his education, made me instruct and educate him as the king's son, but in private. Dame Peronetti continued her services to him till the time of her death, and they both seemed to be particularly attached one to the other. The prince was instructed in my house in Burgundy, with that care which is due to the son and the brother of a king.

During the troubles of France, I had frequent conversations with the queen; and it appeared to me that her majesty was afraid that, if ever this child should be known during the lifetime of his brother, the young king, some malecontents might thence take occasion to revolt; because certain physicians are of opinion, that the last born of twins is the first conceived, consequently the second child was king by right.

This fear, however, never induced the queen to destroy the written proofs of his birth; because, in case the young king should die, she intended to make his twin brother be acknowledged, though he had another son. She often told me, that she carefully preserved these written proofs in a small box.

I gave the young prince such an education as I would have wished for myself, and the princes who were acknowledged had not a better. All that I can reproach myself with is, that I occasioned the prince's misfortune without intending it; for as he had, when about nineteen, a strange desire to know who he was, and, as he saw me resolved to conceal that secret from him, because I always appeared firm to my purpose when he entreated most, he determined to pretend that he had laid aside his curiosity, and to make me believe that he imagined himself my son illegitimately born. When we were alone, I often told him, when he called me father, that he was deceived; but I afterwards gave over combating that opinion,

which he entertained, perhaps, to make me speak out, suffering him to believe that he was really my son. Two years passed away in this manner, when an unhappy act of imprudence on my part, for which I must reproach myself, let him know who he was. He understood that his majesty had, for some time past, sent messengers to me, and, as I had unluckily left some of the queen's and cardinal's letters in my strong box, he read part of them, and had sufficient penetration to guess the rest. He afterwards confessed to me, that he had carried away the most expressive letter, and that which contained the principal information respecting his birth.

I remember that, instead of shewing that friendship and respect towards me to which I had accustomed him, he afterwards became sullen and brutal; but I could not at first discover the cause of this change; for I never supposed that he had searched my box, and he never would confess by what means he had procured access to it.

He, however, was imprudent enough one day to ask me for the portraits of Louis XIII. and the reigning king; but I replied, that those which I had were extremely bad, and that I would wait until I could procure proper artists to execute some better.

After this answer, which was far from satisfying him, he requested permission to go to Dijon. I knew afterwards that his intention in going thither was to see a picture of the king, and to set out for the court, which was then at Saint-Jean-de-Luz, on account of the marriage of his majesty with the Infanta, in order that he might compare himself with his brother, and see whether there was any resemblance between them. I, however, found out his design, and, on that account, never suffered him to be absent from me.

The prince was then extremely beautiful, and a love intrigue enabled him to get possession of a picture of his brother; for he had conceived a passion for a young governess in the family, and by means of caresses and coaxing, notwithstanding the express orders

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orders given to all the domestics to say nothing without my permission, she procured him a picture of the king.

The unhappy prince then discovered who he was, and he might well do so, for the same picture would have served for both. As soon as he had looked at it, he fell into a violent passion, and running to me, said, *behold my brother, I now know who I am*, shewing me a letter of cardinal Mazarin, which he had stolen from me. Upon this, I dispatched a messenger to the king, to inform him that my box had been broken open, and to require fresh instructions. The orders which the king sent by the cardinal were, that we should both be confined, and to inform the prince, that his pretensions had occasioned our common misfortune. I suffered with him in our prison till the moment when I imagined that the sentence for my quitting this world was pronounced by our Judge on high; and I could not forbear, for the tranquillity of my own mind, and on account of my pupil, to make a kind of declaration to him, which pointed out a method of freeing himself from the ignominious condition in which he was, should the king die without a son. Can a forced oath oblige people to be secret respecting incredible anecdotes, which should undoubtedly be handed down to posterity?

The authors of the *Journal Encyclopédique*, from which we have extracted this article, make the following observations on it: "Such is the memorial which we here give as authentic. We have said that it explains the enigma of the man with the iron mask; it indeed resolves with the utmost simplicity that grand question, which was never before answered: What was the reason that no remarkable person disappeared in any of the courts of Europe, when this prisoner, so much respected, was conveyed to the island of St. Margaret? But may not some suspicions be very justly entertained respecting the authenticity of this memorial?

"In the first place, it is without

date or signature; upon what authority then does it rest, and how could it be admitted as evidence had the prisoner had occasion to employ it? Perhaps it may be said, that the original might have been signed, and that the regent only delivered a copy of it. Admitting this, What is become of the original? If it was existing in the family of Orleans, what necessity was there for concealing it after the death of Louis XIV. and of the prisoner himself, especially in a court which had so much reason to complain of Louis XIV. which entertained little affection for him when alive, and which endeavoured to discredit his memory after he died?

"Secondly, This memorial existed before the death of Louis XIV. and it was written even before that of the prisoner, which happened on the 19th of November, 1703. Why did not the governor of St. Margaret transmit it to the king, and, if the king was acquainted with it, why did he suffer it to exist whilst the *procès verbal*, and every thing that related to the prisoner, the real or pretended twin-brother of Louis XIV. was destroyed with so much care? Why did that prince, so cautious respecting his secrets, suffer a piece of so much importance to escape him?

"Thirdly, Who were those shepherds who pretended to the gift of prophecy, who made so much noise at Paris, who alarmed the court and city concerning the birth of two dauphins, and of whom no historian, however, of that time makes the least mention when speaking of the birth of Louis XIV.

"Fourthly, How could the second delivery of the queen be concealed from the courtiers and guards, who are always very attentive in such cases? Why did not the centinels hear the noise of the child, which, as is said, cried incessantly? If the guards were not removed, they must have heard; if they and the other servants were sent out of the way, this precaution alone must have filled Versailles with suspicions. Why was nothing known, and

and nothing said at that time of all these circumstances?

"Fifthly, A young man, educated with all the distinction due to the son and brother of a king, in a castle of Burgundy, must have made some noise in the province; and his disappearing suddenly with the no-

bleman who had the care of him, must have created no little astonishment. How was it possible that they could both be suddenly carried away and confined, without the knowledge of any person in Burgundy, or elsewhere?"

OBSERVATIONS ON THE MANNA OF SICILY.

BY THE ABBE SESTINI.

THERE are different trees that produce manna, which is a juice peculiar to them, and which is forced to quit its proper channels in order to be condensed afterwards by the sun. It is found very commonly on the trunk and branches of the pine, the fir, the oak, the juniper-tree, the maple, the *acers*, the beech, the willow, the olive, and the fig, and, above all, on those of the ash, the larch, and the *allagi*, a shrub named thus by Linnaeus, and placed by him in the class of the *Hedysarum*. The latter furnishes the greatest quantity, and it is principally collected from that shrub. The manna used in Italy is brought for the most part from Calabria and Sicily. It is extracted from different kinds of ashes, viz. the tallest and commonest ash, called by Bauhin, in his *Pinax*, *Fraxinus excelsior vel vulgatio*, a great number of which are cultivated in Sicily, where they are commonly called *Fascini di manna*, *Amolci*, or *Midden*. The parts of the island which abound most in the trees that produce manna, are chiefly the territories of *Tusa*, *Cefalu*, and *Gibil manna*, a Saracen name, which signifies the *mountain of manna*, because it furnishes a great deal. The territories of *Capaci* and *Cinisi* are also very celebrated for this production, as well as those two parts delle *Petralie*, one of which, in Sicilian, is called *Soprana*, and the other *Sottana*, that is to say, the upper and lower, precisely near *Capel buono*, under *Mau-*

ro Mistrullo. Some other places in Sicily are famous for the manna procured for them, as well as the immense forests of *Caronia*. These are full of trees that supply an excellent kind of manna, which, on this account, is much sought after by foreigners. That of the marquisate of *Geraci*, situated between the city of *Catania* and *Taormina*, is greatly boasted of.

These trees generally grow spontaneously, and are renewed and multiplied by seed; which is usually sown in the same manner as that of pulse in kitchen gardens. Some planters, who think it tedious to wait till these seeds produce young plants, are accustomed to go and pull shoots from the wild ashes, which they plant in regular order at the distance of seven or eight feet from each other. The most industrious and prudent plant vines and ashes in the same ground, in order that cultivation may favour both these plantations at the same time. They profit also by the produce of the vines, while the ashes are not yet capable of yielding manna, for none is ever collected from them till the end of ten years.

When the tree attains to its full size, it has a beautiful straight trunk which rises to a great height, and shoots forth a number of branches: it is clothed with a greenish cinder-coloured bark, which is extremely smooth, and never cracks or opens till a considerable number of years have elapsed. Its leaves are

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sharp-pointed, and four or five pairs of them are distributed on the same pedicle, which is terminated by a large one. These leaves are smooth, a little indented, of a deep green colour, and afford very little shade. The same tree produces also in the months of March and April, a grain or seed, like that of a cucumber, which botanists call *lingua asini*, and which may be seen hanging from the shoots or *forcoli*, like the berries of the laurel.

The Sicilians take care to plant these trees on the declivities of mountains exposed to the rising sun, and the reason of this custom is as follows. These trees require to be warmed by the sun during the whole morning, but in the afternoon they have occasion for shade and a gentle breeze, proper for condensing the manna which oozes from them in the morning and during the night. As the goodness of the climate, and the cultivation given to these ashes, are not sufficient to make the manna distil of itself from these trees, the Sicilians have learned of Nature, from the remotest ages, as Father Bocconi tells us in his *Physical Museum*, to perform some mechanical operations, which consist in making incisions in the bark of these trees, and cutting them in a peculiar manner, in order to procure a greater quantity of manna, and consequently a greater revenue.

The Sicilians pursue the following method to make incisions in the bark of their ashes, and this operation they distinguish by the word *sagnare*, which signifies to bleed. A few days before the sun enters the sign Leo, that is to say, about the end of the month of July, when the most skilful amongst them observe that the tree, according to their manner of speaking, is in *feve*; and if the weather is dry and serene, about evening they make incisions in the tree, beginning by the lower parts. For this purpose, they employ an iron instrument like a shoe-maker's cutting-knife, with which they

make a horizontal incision in the trunk, about a span in length and towards the east. They take care, at the same time, that this incision may be as deep as the thickness of the bark will admit; and this operation is repeated day after day, about a finger's breadth above the place of the former. The planters never perform it but on the same side of the tree, reserving the opposite side for the year following. Some peasants are accustomed to cut the bark of their ashes by means of an instrument with three blades, which makes the same number of incisions at once, at the distance of a finger's breadth from each other, in order to save time, especially in places where a great trade is carried on in manna.

From these incisions a thick, white liquor begins to distil, which hardens on the bark of the tree, almost in the same manner as the melted wax adheres to our flambeaux. Every six days, more or less, this substance is detached from the tree, and this is generally done in the morning, before the sun has heated the atmosphere. This operation is generally continued during the whole month of August, provided no rain falls, for, if the weather were wet, the manna would be dissolved, and consequently lost.

Whilst the manna distils from the tree, it often happens that some of the sap falls to the ground, and on this account the planters place around the trunks of their ashes very large leaves, which they fix with stones, in order that this liquor may not be covered with earth or dust. Some of them place also, in the same manner, small wooden boxes, into which the manna drops in such abundance that these boxes are soon filled, and transported in that manner to the houses of those who deal in manna.

The Sicilians distinguish only two kinds of manna, which are produced from a variety of ashes; the first extracted from ashes that have been

reared by cultivation, is very white, and resembles the wax which adheres to our wax candles. The second kind of manna is that drawn from the mountain ash by incisions, and which, falling upon leaves, spread on the ground, is afterwards collected with great care. With regard to the manna which remains attached to the bark of the trees, it is scraped off by means of a wooden knife.

The most esteemed and best manna is that which is called spontaneous manna, or *manna in tears*. It is extracted from ashes which have been cultivated, and oozes out from the twigs and young branches surrounding the trunks of the trees. This manna is very scarce, on account of the small quantities of it collected, because, being produced only by the fermentation and superabundance of the sap which cannot remain in its proper vessels, it must necessarily force its way to the extremities of the branches, and there ooze forth, as Father Bocconi informs us. "The sap," says he, "forces itself to the surface of the bark, and is there congealed by the coolness of the night, and by the nitre which is diffused throughout the atmosphere; for if the sap of other trees distils through the cracks of the bark, must not the same thing happen to that of the ash? Must not its sap be condensed on the trunks of the young trees, and upon their branches, after making its way through those rents, and even through the pores of the bark?"

Were those authors alive who pretended that the manna of Calabria ought to hold the first rank on account of its goodness and quality, that of Sicily the second, and the Roman the third, especially that which is collected in the territories of *Santa Felicità, della Tolfa*, they

would be obliged to reverse this order; they would say that the first rank is justly due to the manna of Sicily, because experience shews that it is superior in quality to the manna of other places, and not so far as that of Calabria, consequently much less liable to be corrupted. This fault occasions vomitings to those who use it, and the manna which is half spoilt produces this effect much more than any other. For this reason, several proprietors in Sicily have planted ashes in their grounds, and even in their gardens, which brings them great profit, on account of the demand which there is at present for manna.

The price of this production varies in Sicily according to the quantity of it collected annually. If the produce has been abundant, it costs three tari per rotolo,* but if it happens to be indifferent, it is sold for five tari per rotolo, and when there is little or none, for seven tari and a half.

It would be very difficult to ascertain exactly how much manna is collected every year in Sicily, because so many events happen which prevent a calculation of this kind to be made with any precision. If I may be allowed to form any conjecture on the subject, I will observe that the commerce which Sicily carries on in manna with foreign nations is highly advantageous to the latter. It indeed sometimes happens that two thousand Sicilian *cantari* of it are exported, which, being valued at seventeen ounces the *cantaro*, produce 34000 ounces. As this production is generally sent by the ports of Palermo and Cefalu, to Leghorn, Genoa, and Marseilles, from which it is afterwards transported to distant countries, it follows that the Sicilian navigation does not derive all those advantages from it which might be expected.

* A rotolo weighs thirty pounds.

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ON THE ASTRONOMY OF THE BRAHMINS.

[Continued from Page 22.]

17. **T**HE tables and methods of the Brahmins of Tirvalore are, in many respects, more singular than any that have yet been described. The solar year is divided, according to them, into twelve unequal months, each of which is the time that the sun takes to move through one sign, or 30° , of the ecliptic.

In their calculations they also employ an astronomical day, which is different from the natural, being the time that the sun takes to move over one degree of the ecliptic; and of which days there are just 360 in a year.

18. These tables go far back, far into antiquity. Their epoch coincides with the famous æra of the Calyougham, that is, with the beginning of the year 3102, before Christ. When the Brahmins of Tirvalore would calculate the place of the sun for a given time, they begin by reducing into days the interval between that time and the commencement of the Calyougham, multiplying the years by 365 days, 6 hours, 12, $30''$; and taking away 2 days, 3 hours, 22', $30''$, the astronomical epoch having begun that much later than the civil. They next find, by means of certain divisions, when the year current began, or how many days have elapsed since the beginning of it, and then, by the table of the duration of months, they reduce these days into astronomical months, days, &c. which is the same with the signs, degrees, and minutes, of the sun's longitude from the beginning of the zodiac: the sun's longitude, therefore, is found.

19. Somewhat in the same manner, but by a rule still more artificial and ingenious, they deduce the place of the moon, at any given time, from her place at the beginning of the Calyougham. This rule is strongly

marked with all the peculiar characters of the Indian astronomy: it is remarkable for its accuracy, and still more for its ingenuity and refinement; but it is not reduced, withal, to its ultimate simplicity.

20. The tables of Tirvalore, however, though they differ in form very much from those formerly described, agree with them perfectly in many of their elements: they suppose the same length of the year, the same motions, and the same inequalities of the sun and moon; and they are adapted nearly to the same meridian. But a circumstance in which they seem to differ materially from the rest is, the antiquity of the epoch from which they take their date, the year 3102, before the Christian æra. We must, therefore, enquire whether this epoch is real or fictitious; that is, whether it has been determined by actual observation, or has been calculated from the modern epochs of the tables; for it may naturally be supposed that the Brahmins, having made observations in later times, or having borrowed from the astronomical knowledge of other nations, have imagined to themselves a fictitious epoch, coinciding with the celebrated æra of the Calyougham, to which, through vanity or superstition, they have referred the places of the heavenly bodies, and have only calculated what they pretend that their ancestors observed.

21. In doing this, however, the Brahmins must have furnished us with means, almost infallible, of detecting their imposture. It is only for astronomy, in its most perfect state, to go back to the distance of forty-six centuries, and to ascertain the situation of the heavenly bodies at so remote a period.

The modern astronomy of Europe, with all the accuracy that it derives from the telescope and the pendulum,

could not venture on so difficult a task, were it not assisted by the theory of gravitation, and had not the integral calculus, after an hundred years of almost continual improvement, been able, at last, to determine the disturbances in our system, which arise from the action of the planets on one another.

Unless the corrections for these disturbances be taken into account, any system of astronomical tables, however accurate at the time of its formation, and however diligently copied from the heavens, will be found less exact for every instant, either before or after that time, and continually diverge more and more from the truth, both for future and past ages. Indeed, this will happen, not only from the neglect of these corrections, but also from the small errors unavoidably committed, in determining the mean motions, which must accumulate with the time, and produce an effect that becomes every day more sensible, as we retire, on either side, from the instant of observation. For both these reasons, it may be established as a maxim, that, if there be given a system of astronomical tables, founded on observations of an unknown date, that date may be found, by taking the time when the tables represent the celestial motions most exactly.

Here, therefore, we have a criterion, by which we are to judge of the pretensions of the Indian astronomy to so great antiquity.

It is true that, in applying it, we must suppose our modern astronomy, if not perfectly accurate, at least so exact as to represent the celestial motions, without any sensible error; even for a period more remote than the Calyougham; and this, considering the multitude of observations on which our astronomy is founded, the great antiquity of some of these observations, and the extreme accuracy of the rest, together with the assistance derived from the theory of physical causes, may surely be assumed as a very reasonable postulatam, We

begin with the examination of the mean motions.

[Mr. Playfair now proceeds in such examination; the limits of our work will not permit us to follow him thro' all his truly ingenious calculations, nor would there be any information or improvement, except to mere astronomers; we shall, therefore, only insert his conclusions.]

On the grounds which we have explained, the following general conclusions appear to be established.

1. The observations on which the astronomy of India is founded, were made more than 3000 years before the Christian æra, and, in particular, the places of the sun and moon, at the beginning of the Calyougham, were determined by actual observation.

This follows from the exact agreement of the radical places in the tables of Tirvalore, with those deduced for the same epoch from the tables of De La Caille and Mayer, and especially in the case of the moon, when regard is had to her acceleration. It follows, too, from the position of the fixed stars in respect of the equinox, as represented in the Indian zodiac; from the length of the solar year; and, lastly, from the position and form of the orbits of Jupiter and Saturn, as well as their mean motions; in all of which, the tables of the Brahmins, compared with ours, give the quantity of the change that has taken place, just equal to that which the action of the planets on one another may be shewn to have produced, in the space of forty-eight centuries; reckoned back from the beginning of the present.

Two other of the elements of this astronomy, the equation of the sun's centre, and the obliquity of the ecliptic, when compared with those of the present time, seem to point to a period still more remote, and to fix the origin of this astronomy: 1000 or 1300 years earlier, that is, 4300 years before the Christian æra; and the time necessary to have brought the arts of calculating and observing to such perfection as they must have attained

attained at the beginning of the Calyougham, comes in support of the same conclusion.

Of such high antiquity, therefore, must we suppose the origin of this astronomy, unless we can believe that all the coincidences which have been enumerated are but the effects of chance; or, what indeed were still more wonderful, that, some ages ago, there had arisen a Newton among the Brahmins, to discover that universal principle which connects not only the most distant regions of space, but the most remote periods of duration; and a De La Grange, to trace, through the immensity of both, its most subtle and complicated operations.

2. Though the astronomy which is now in the hands of the Brahmins is so ancient in its origin, yet it contains many rules and tables that are of later construction.

The first operation for computing the moon's place from the tables of Tirvalore requires that 1,600,984 days should be subtracted from the time that has elapsed since the beginning of the Calyougham, which brings down the date of the rule to the year 1282 of our era. At this time, too, the place of the moon, and of her apogee, are determined with so much exactness, that it must have been done by observation, either at the instant referred to, or a few days before or after it. At this time, therefore, it is certain, that astronomical observations were made in India, and that the Brahmins were not, as they are now, without any knowledge of the principles on which their rules are founded. When that knowledge was lost, will not perhaps be easily ascertained; but there are, I think, no circumstances in the tables from which we can certainly infer the existence of it at a later period than what has just been mentioned; for, though there are more modern epochs to be found in them, they are such as may have been derived from the most ancient of all, by help of the mean motions in the tables of Chirsnabouram, without any other skill than is

required to an ordinary calculation. Of these epochs, beside what have been occasionally mentioned in the course of our remarks, there is one (involved in the tables of Nanjapur) as late as the year 1656, and another as early as the year 78 of our era, which marks the death of Salivagannam, one of their princes, in whose reign a reform is said to have taken place in the methods of their astronomy. There is no reference to any intermediate date, from that time to the beginning of the Calyougham.

The parts of this astronomy, therefore, are not all of the same antiquity; nor can we judge, merely from the epoch to which the tables refer, of the age to which they were originally adapted. We have said, that the tables of Chirsnabouram, though they profess to be no older than the year 1491 of our era, are, in reality, more ancient than the tables of Tirvalore, which are dated from the Calyougham, or at least have undergone fewer alterations.

This we concluded from the slow motion given to the moon, in the former of their tables, which agreed, with such wonderful precision, with the secular equation applied to that planet by Mayer, and explained by M. De La Place.

But it appears, that neither the tables of Tirvalore or Chirsnabouram, nor any with which we are yet acquainted, are the most ancient to be found in India. The Brahmins constantly refer to an astronomy at Benares, which they emphatically stile *the ancient*, and which, they say, is now understood by them, though they believe it to be much more accurate than that by which they calculate. That it is more accurate, is improbable; that it may be more ancient, no one who has duly attended to the foregoing facts and reasonings, will think impossible, and every one, I believe, will acknowledge, that no greater service could be rendered to the learned world, than to rescue this precious fragment from obscurity. If that is ever to be expected, it is when the

zeal for knowledge has formed a literary society among our countrymen in Bengal, and while that society is directed by the learning and abilities of Sir William Jones. Indeed, the farther discoveries which may be made with respect to this science, do not interest merely the astronomer and the mathematician, but every one who delights to mark the progress of mankind, or is curious to look back on the ancient inhabitants of the globe. It is through the medium of astronomy alone that few rays from those distant objects, can be conveyed in safety to the eye of a modern observer, so as to afford him light, which, though it be scanty, is pure and unbroken, and free from the false colourings of vanity and superstition.

3. The basis of the four systems of astronomical tables which we have examined, is evidently the same.

Though these tables are scattered over an extensive country, they seem to have been all originally adapted either to the same meridian, or to meridians at no great distance, which traverse what we may call the classical ground of India, marked by the ruins of Canoge, Palibothra, and Benares. They contain rules that have originated between the tropics; whatever be their epoch, they are all mean motions, connected with that of the Calyougham; and they have besides one uniform character, which it is perhaps not easy to describe.

Great ingenuity has been exerted to simplify their rules; yet, in no instance almost, are they reduced to the utmost simplicity; and when it happens that the operations to which they lead are extremely obvious, these are often involved in an artificial obscurity.

A Brahmin frequently multiplies by a greater number than is necessary, where he seems to gain nothing but the trouble of dividing by one that is greater in the same proportion; and he calculates the era of Salivaganan, with the formality of as many distinct operations as if he were going to determine the moon's motion, since the beginning of the Calyougham. The

same spirit of exclusion, the same fear of communicating his knowledge, seems to direct the calculus which pervades the religion of the Brahmin; and, in neither of them, is he willing to receive or to impart instruction. With all these circumstances of resemblance, the methods of this astronomy are as much diversified as we can suppose the same system to be, by passing through the hands of a succession of ingenious men; fertile in resources, and acquainted with the variety and extent of the science which they cultivated.

A system of knowledge, which is thus assimilated to the genius of the people, that is diffused so widely among them, and diversified so much, has a right to be regarded, either as native, or a very ancient inhabitant of the country where it is found.

4. The construction of their tables implies a great knowledge of geometry, arithmetic, and of the theoretical part of astronomy.

In proof of this, it is unnecessary to recapitulate the remarks that have been already made. It may be proper, however, to add, that the method of calculating eclipses, to which their tables are subservient, is in no respect, an empirical one, founded on the mere observation of the intervals at which eclipses return, one after another, in the same order.

It is indeed remarkable, that we find no trace here of the period of 6585 days and 8 hours, or 223 lunations, the *Saras* of the Chaldean astronomers, which they employed for the prediction of eclipses, and which (observed with more or less accuracy) the first astronomers every where must have employed, before they were able to analyze eclipses, and to find out the laws of every cause contributing to them. That empirical method, if once it existed in India, is now forgotten, and has long since given place to the more scientific and accurate one, which offers a complete analysis of the phenomena; and calculates, one by one, the motions of the sun, of the moon, and of the node.

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But what, without doubt, is to be accounted the greatest refinement in this system, is the hypothesis employed in calculating the equations of the centre for the sun, moon, and planets, that, *viz.* of a circular orbit having a double eccentricity, as having its centre in the middle between the earth and the point, about which the angular motion is uniform. If to this we add the great extent of geometrical knowledge requisite to combine this and the other principles of their astronomy together, and to deduce from them the just conclusions; the possession of a calculus equivalent to trigonometry; and, lastly, their approximation to the quadrature of the circle; we shall be astonished at the magnitude of that body of science which must have enlightened the inhabitants

of India in some remote age, and which, whatever it may have communicated to the western nations, appears to have received nothing from them.

Such are the conclusions that seem to me to follow, with the highest probability, from the facts which have been stated. They are, without doubt, extraordinary; and have no other claim to our belief, except that, as I think has been fully proved, there being false were much more wonderful than there being true. There are but few things, however, of which the contrary is impossible. It must be remembered, that the whole evidence on this subject is not yet before the public, and that the repositories of Benares may contain what is to confirm or to invalidate these observations.

TO THE EDITORS OF THE

LITERARY MAGAZINE.

GENTLEMEN, I have the honor to inform you, that the following narrative, which forms part of a Tour round the World, and has never yet appeared in an English dress, should prove to be acceptable to your readers, I shall be happy to have contributed to their amusement; and the rest shall be sent in due course. The enthusiastic spirit of the traveller, and the sound philosophy and warm philanthropy which pervade the whole; and great part of the tour being through countries little known, makes it highly valuable and entertaining.

NAUTICUS.

A VOYAGE FROM ST. DOMINGO TO NEW ORLEANS, PART OF A TOUR ROUND THE WORLD, BY PAGES, CAPTAIN IN THE FRENCH NAVY, KNIGHT OF THE ORDER OF ST. LOUIS, AND CORRESPONDENT OF THE ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

DIFFERENT circumstances relative to my private affairs and to the service of the French navy, to which I have the honor to belong, induced me to form a plan to gain a knowledge of the Indian seas, and to proceed thither by a western course: I proposed afterwards to cross China, and penetrate, by way of Tartary, to the sea of Kamchatka. My intention was to search for a northern passage, by pursuing the north coast: the mode I intended to adopt in the prosecution of my design appeared

to me very easy; I designed to accustom myself to the manners and customs of the northern people; to adopt their mode of living; join them in their hunting parties, and by that method convey myself from village to village along the sea shore: by these means, I could not fail either to discover the passage to the north of Siberia, or to be assured of its non-existence, if the continuation of the coast should conduct me to North America. This second part of my project I was obliged to relinquish, as

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I found it impracticable to procure the means necessary to cross China.

Whenever I have read the history of a traveller, wandering over unknown countries, I felt a sensible emotion. The conquests of the Europeans in the two Indies, the attempts and discoveries of the Russians to the north-east of their empire, an ambition to achieve some great enterprize, but, above all, an invincible desire for whatever could bring me acquainted with the primitive simplicity of uncultivated nature, beautiful in its original state, such as I imagine it to be when it came first from the hands of the Creator, absorbed every faculty of my soul. I judged that a want of patience and perseverance, and a deprivation of the comforts of life to which men are accustomed, who, by their rank and knowledge, are alone proper to be employed in such enterprizes, were the principal obstacles that often rendered them unsuccessful: I thought that a hard and laborious way of life, supported by constancy and courage, would insure success; I was, besides, impressed with an opinion that the more simple and uncultivated, the less wicked mankind is, and that, with an easy disposition and a simplicity of manners, in living, acting, and thinking, a man is better received among unpolished people, than in the most polite cities, where ostentation necessarily excites desire, the parent of avarice and suspicion. These opinions set my project in a favourable light, caused every difficulty to disappear, and served to confirm me in my design.

Such was the situation of my mind, when my duty called me from Rochford to the Island of St. Domingo; of this island I shall not speak, as both the course thither, and the country itself, are well known.

In consequence of the obstacles to which I attributed the bad success of former adventurers, I accustomed myself to what was to me a new and plain mode of living: I had not then discovered whether it was really the best, but adopted it from necessity,

not being possessed either of fortune or credit sufficient to enable me commodiously to make so long a journey among savage nations, or such as were but little advanced in civilization; and among others, who permit the approach of strangers with impatience, but whose country it was necessary to cross. I hastened the execution of my plan, taking, however, every necessary precaution to insure its success; and as some favourable circumstances occurred which could seldom have happened together, at any other time, or at any other place, than at Cape Francois, where I then was, I fixed my resolution, without more delay.

I embarked in a French vessel for New Orleans, hoping for success from Providence, from my resolution and patience, and from the most simple and laborious mode of life, the habituating myself to which would render the fatigues of the journey and such bodily labour as I might be compelled to, by circumstances, more supportable. I looked for every obstacle, that I might not be surprized by any.

New Orleans having been just ceded to Spain, I hoped I should be able to find means there to cross the country between the River Mississippi and the Rio-bravo or Grande, which last river divides New Spain from Louisiana: this tract of country is inhabited only by savages. The distance, though very considerable, did not appear sufficient to impede the execution of my design, and I flattered myself I should be able to penetrate into New Spain by the frontiers of New Mexico.

We sailed from Cape Francois the last day of June, 1767, intending to pass through the Old Straits. The wind being easterly, we stood to the W. N. W. we afterwards kept a little farther from land, by steering N. W. and passed about eight leagues to the northward of St. Nicholas Mole.

Continuing the same course, and with the same wind, we soon after saw the Island of Cuba, and running

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along it, had sight of Cape des Mulas, designing to steer for the small islands of Palumas and Sable, which form the entrance of the Old Straits, towards the sea. To be certain of making those islands, which are very low, we were particularly attentive to get a good sight of Cape des Mulas, for the continuation of the coast of Cuba is not easily perceived, and it is necessary to have a good pilot to come near it. The Palumas are on the larboard, and the Island of Sable on the starboard side of this channel: in this part it is about 15 leagues broad, and does not widen considerably until about 60 leagues farther.

This channel, on the side towards the sea, is formed of rocks, banks, and small islands, which extends as far as the Straits of Bahama, and on the side towards the Island of Cuba, by many banks and rocks, which run out so far that the land is not in sight.

The wind continued easterly, light, and coming only in breezes; but as the current ran to the westward, we happily got through in four days. I was surprized that most of the ships bound to the westward should expose themselves to a long passage and calms, which often prevail to the S. W. of the Island of Cuba, by taking that course to avoid the passage of the old channel, which is by no means dangerous, with proper attention. We afterwards steered our course for the Matanza, a mountain laying within land, westward of a bay of the same name: its summit rises above the other mountains, in the form of a cap, from whence it is called the Cap of Matanza, and serves for a land-mark. Soon after, we had sight of the Havanaah, in the same Island of Cuba: steering from thence, N. W. and keeping farther from shore, we stood for the sound of the Turtle Islands. These islands bear S. W. from Cape Florida, and the sound S. of them. We sounded and found fifty-two fathom with a bottom of sand and grey gravel; but S. S. W. of them, at the distance of five leagues, when they are nearly out of sight, being very

low, we found fifty fathom, bottom of sand and white gravel. This bottom is a certain indication of the sound. We haled up a little to the westward, to avoid being embayed in the Gulph of Florida, and were soon out of sounding. We had some calms, and saw many dolphins, which were about five feet long, and very thick; they are curious, from the variety of their fine colours, which change every moment.

We were somewhat fearful of the current from the Strait of Bahama: it appeared singular to me that the currents of this strait, from south to north, (which is clearly only the effect of the trade winds and the bearings of the coast) are the most rapid when the northerly winds blow strongest. I can explain this phenomenon only by supposing that the northerly winds, when they are the most violent, drive the waves with great force over the range of rocks and shoals which extend towards the E. S. E. The waves, thus driven over the rocks, raise the water of the strait above the height of the ocean, which endeavouring to recover its level, causes a more rapid current than when the sea is calm and smooth.

The wind freshened, and we steered, for sounding, between the river Mobile and the S. E. mouth of the river Mississippi; these we made in 40 fathom water, a bottom of black mud, and continued standing on in these soundings. We steered this course because, being then N. E. of the south-eastern and southern entrances, we had the benefit of the current from the former, which drove us within sight of the land-mark. We had a view of this beacon at the distance of five leagues, and anchored two leagues N. E. of it, to avoid the force of the stream, and any danger from the drift wood. The bottom of the river Mobile is a black mud, that of the S. E. mouth of the Mississippi is a white slime, mixed with some grains of fine sand; that of the land-mark, of mud equally white, but without sand. If, on falling in with the

the land, the navigator does not take the precautions above-mentioned, he runs a risk of being driven past the south-east mouth and the eastern and southern channels of the great mouth, and also of being driven to the S. W. past the western channel, of the same mouth where the current sets down into the Bay of St. Bernard, which is little known, and very dangerous, on account of the sand banks and sunken coasts. The great mouth of the river which is to the south, divides into several channels, formed by some small, low islands, which, in times of flood, are often overflowed. One of these islands, situated west of the south entrance, had been occupied by the French, who had there erected a landmark, for security of ships coming in with that part of the coast which is overflowed. The Spaniards have taken possession of another island, east of the south-eastern entrance, where they have raised a battery, erected a landmark, and established pilots for this new passage, which appeared to me more convenient than the old one: in fact, ships arriving almost always from the eastward, and the wind generally blowing from that quarter, a N. W. is more convenient than a northerly course; they are also less in danger of being driven to the westward, towards the Bay of St. Bernard. Both the passages are difficult, and even in the latter there is at the utmost but eighteen feet water, and we were obliged to steer very carefully in a very rapid stream.

We entered with a pilot.

I was surprized at the beauty of this river; its waters running into the sea, do not lose either their whiteness or freshness, for two or three leagues: the strength of the current is also felt at that distance, which frequently roots up, and brings down with it large trees, that are very dangerous to navigators.

These trees, being often stopped in the bed of the river, accumulate, in time, and form dykes against the current; but the noise this obstruction occasions is heard at a considerable

distance, and gives notice to be aware of them. The free and general current of the river is at least two leagues and a half in an hour. This great rapidity causes the water to swell at the sides, and makes it, in many places, take a direction different from that of the middle. We profited by this reflux, notwithstanding which, we went up very slowly, the wind being weak, and the current exceedingly rapid, in some places.

Our impatience was augmented by a prodigious quantity of gnats and flies, whose sting was insupportable. The shores of the river are formed of sunken and marshy lands, covered only with reeds which are well adapted for breeding these insects. It seems as if nature took a pleasure in multiplying their species, and in rendering their stings sharp; they give pain in a variety of shapes, differing according to their form, their size, or colour. The sight of an immense extent of these reeds, always verdant, very lofty, and undulating in the wind: would form a very pleasing view, were we not aware that they harboured such venomous inhabitants. During the heat of the day, the most troublesome of these insects was a species of fly, called "strike quick," which never fails to sting the moment it settles, and that so severely that the blood instantly follows; from which circumstance it has received its name; the coolness on the approach of night, makes these flies retire, and clouds of gnats, musketoes, and other insects succeed them. Nothing but a very thick smoke will drive them away, a remedy to which the inhabitants of Louisiana have recourse.

About ten leagues from the entrance of the Mississippi, is the separation of that branch of the river which forms the south-east mouth. A little higher up, on the same shore, we saw the oyster cove; these fish are of a prodigious size and their shells are used to make lime, there being no lime stone in this country. These marshy shores of the river serve also as a retreat for a vast number of water fowl,

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of every denomination, which are so fat, that the industry of the inhabitants of New Orleans has been roused to extract an oil from them, which forms a small branch of commerce.

Fifteen leagues from the mouth, we came to the strait of the Plaquemines, so called from a wild fruit of that name, which is very good. Here the land begins to rise above the water, the river is skirted with high, large, and majestic trees, which, being intermixed with shrubs, form a very thick wood. On entering these woods, the soil, covered with decayed leaves, presents some agreeable walks, when they are not interrupted by trees fallen by age, or by stagnant waters. The thickness of the trees form a shade impenetrable to the sun. The swans and the birds called cardinals please the eye by the beauty of their colours: the plumage of the latter is equal to that of any bird in Europe. The river has plenty of wild ducks, and other birds fit for food, in places adopted to harbour them. Many sorts of large fish may be caught here by the line; among others dabs and thornbacks; the sharp weapons these fish are furnished with make the fishermen sometimes repent their too great alertness; the wounds they make

is followed by a swelling of the injured parts.

In this reach we encountered so violent a storm, that the hawser with which we were made fast to a tree parted, and we were driven towards the opposite side of the river. Our topmast, which was only about two inches and a half diameter, broke, it was very short, but had indeed neither shrouds nor stay to support it, as our vessel was only about sixty tons burthen. In this river they make the vessels fast to trees on the shore, because if they came to anchor, they would probably leave their anchors among sunken trees.

We soon began to find inhabitants and plantations of rice and Indian corn. Rice is generally sowed in places where the land is only about two feet above the level of the water, in order to cut channels for such a supply of that commodity as is necessary for its cultivation. Indian corn is cultivated in all parts of Louisiana, but the harvest is not in any place so fine and so abundant as in this. The houses of the inhabitants are agreeable enough, they are built some few feet above the earth, to guard them from the damp, from serpents and other venomous animals, which are still however very dangerous.

ON SEVERAL NATURAL PHENOMENA, EXPLAINED IN A NEW MANNER.

BY THE ABBE LEBES, PROFESSOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN THE ROYAL COLLEGE OF THOULOUSE.

THE chemists have found all the influence of the modern discoveries in the explanation of meteors: but, more occupied to further the progress of chemistry, than to apply them to philosophy, they have hazarded conjectures only, and left to philosophers the care of applying them. No philosopher has hitherto been known to attempt converting these errors into proofs supported by facts and experiments. We even see, in our own days, a number of philo-

sophers who are attached to their old errors, who confidently support doctrines which their authors would blush to acknowledge, if they could be witnesses of the progress of chemistry. This paper is intended to apply the lights of modern chemistry to the phenomena of nature; and particularly to those the atmosphere presents during a storm.

1. The composition and decomposition of water is no longer a problem. The fine experiments of Messieurs

seurs Cavendish and Lavoisier have satisfied the greater part of chemists on that article; and if any one has doubts on that important truth, the experiments of Messrs. Van Trostwig and Deiman, published in November 1789, are well calculated to dispel them: we may, therefore, establish it as an incontestible fact, that water is composed of *gaz exiginé*, or vital air, and of *gaz hydrogène*, or inflammable air; that by a mixture of these two airs, in the proportion of six to one, there results water whenever this mixture is inflamed by electric matter, and that consequently we may look on vital air, inflammable air, and electric matter, as three elements which concur in the formation of water.

2. That solar heat, united with central heat, will, in certain circumstances, operate to the decomposition of water, and the quantity of water decomposed must always augment in direct proportion to the intensity of the solar heat. No chemist regards this assertion as problematical. The celebrated Priestley asserts that the central heat will alone, in some cases, produce that effect.

3. The summer season is the most subject to storms. They are always preceded by excessive heat; from whence it follows that those days which are incommoded by storms are marked by the composition of a considerable quantity of vital air and inflammable air, arising from the decomposition of water.

4. It is well known that vital air forms one fourth of the atmosphere, that that alone is proper for respiration, and that consequently the atmosphere would soon lose all its salubrity if it was not furnished with some means to repair its losses. The most fertile of these means, probably, during the heats of the summer, is the decomposition of water. In this decomposition the atmosphere finds where-withal to indemnify itself for the sacrifices it makes in favour of animals.

5. It may, perhaps, be said, that the specific gravity of vital air will prevent its rising in the atmosphere.

To this I answer, that phlogisticated air is not sensibly lighter than vital air, and that consequently the weight of the latter cannot be an obstacle to its elevation, when favoured by those impetuous winds which accompany a storm: otherwise the birds would prefer inhabiting the superior regions of the atmosphere. The air they breathe in the plains is not more pure than what they find on the top of the highest mountains. These facts prove the existence of vital air in the highest regions of the atmosphere; it should even seem that, during the existence of a storm, they must contain a much greater quantity than less elevated places. In fact, storms are preceded by a much greater quantity of vital air, which can only be decomposed by common air; it must, therefore, naturally be found in the atmosphere, and since the inferior regions always contain the same quantity, it must necessarily be found in the superior.

6. But what becomes of the vital air arising from the decomposition of water? Does it rise up in the atmosphere, to occupy a place marked by its specific gravity, as Mr. Lavoisier thinks? or is it, in the moment of its birth, decomposed by common air, so as not to leave in the atmosphere any trace of its existence, as Mr. Metherie conjectures? The following experiments, which I have often repeated with great exactness and with the same result, may possibly inform us on this subject.

1. In a flaggon of about sixteen inches high, full of water, I infused at first eight inches of atmospheric air, and afterwards eight inches of inflammable air, procured from steel filings and sulphuric acid. The flaggon being stopped, it was kept always with the neck reversed in water. On the first day of the experiment, the water sensibly rose in the flaggon; the second it was less apparent, and the third it did not rise at all. At the end of a month, I opened the flaggon, brought a lighted taper near it, and there was an explosion, with flame.

2. In the same flaggon full of wa-

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ter I at first passed twelve inches of atmospheric air, and afterwards four inches of inflammable air. The flaggon was stopped, and treated as in the former experiment. The absorption was less sensible, and at the end of fifteen days I opened the flaggon, and bringing a lighted taper to the mouth of the bottle, it produced a slight explosion, attended with flame.

3. Into a bottle, seven inches high, and one inch diameter, full of water, I passed six ounces of atmospheric air, and afterwards an ounce of inflammable air. I left this bottle reversed in water, and at the end of fifteen days, a lighted taper, brought to the mouth of the bottle, produced an explosion, attended with flame.

These experiments oppose the opinion of the decomposition of inflammable air by the atmospheric air, in the moment the atmospheric air disengages itself. The ascension of the water in the flaggon does not prove any thing in favour of this decomposition: this absorption is to be attributed to the great affinity of water and inflammable air. This is so far true, that the absorption does not act when the flaggon which contains the mixture is laid on mercury.

Mr. de la Metherie, that celebrated chemist, to whom the new theory is so much obliged, even by the obstacles which he has opposed to it, seems to think that common air decomposes the inflammable air the moment it is disengaged from the different circumstances with which it is combined, but he does not report any experiment directly in favour of his doctrine: he only supports himself by the evidence of Dr. Priestley. But the latter attributes to common, the property of decomposing inflammable air, only when the two gazes are in a state of combination, and in that he agrees with the rest of the chemists. Here we suppose those gazes in a state of mixture.

It appears, therefore, that common air does not decompose inflammable air in the moment of its birth, and consequently, since we can never be

certain of its presence in the lower regions of the atmosphere, we must conclude that, by its superior degree of lightness, it is soon raised into the higher regions.

Of the particles of water exposed to the beams of the sun, those which experience the greatest heat suddenly decompose into vital and inflammable airs. The others fly up into the atmosphere, in the form of vapour, for want of sufficient heat to effect a perfect decomposition. During the severity of winter, these vapours find in the superior regions of the atmosphere a degree of temperature inferior to what they enjoyed. They lose their heat, condense, and fall again in the form of rain. During the heat of the summer, the temperature of the higher regions of the atmosphere, probably superior to those of the vapours, which rise from the surface of the earth, affords them an additional degree of heat, and facilitates their conversion from a state of vapour to that of gas. From hence results, during the period of storms, a production of vital and inflammable air in the higher regions of the atmosphere.

No one is ignorant that the electric matter acts a very powerful part in the atmosphere during a storm; I need not, therefore, cite any facts in support of this assertion.

The higher regions of the atmosphere, which are always the seat of thunder, affords, therefore, during a storm, the re-union of vital air, inflammable air, and electric matter, three elements whose junction always announce a formation of water. Who then can deny them the privilege of having given birth to that rain which falls during the time of brilliant lightning, and in which thunder is also heard? What other cause can be assigned to these storms of rain? Our atmosphere contains principally only air and water in vapour, from whence it results that it is one or other of these circumstances which produce a storm of rain.

In every phenomenon in which many causes combine to produce an effect, we cannot discover to which of these causes the effect is to be attributed, except, if I may be allowed the expression, by *insulating* them, and enquiring respecting each separately. On this principle, we must examine if it is probable that vapours, which float in the atmosphere, re-unite again in sensible masses, to produce rain in the moment in which the storm is formed. Let those who support this opinion explain to us, if they can, why the rains which attend storms are sudden and instantaneous? Why the rain does not fall until after the storm is formed? Why the rain ends precisely with the storm? and lastly, why the rain which accompanies a storm is so favourable to vegetation? All these facts prove the operations of the electric matter in the formation of this kind of rain, and it may fairly be concluded that it is to the reciprocal concurrence of vital inflammable air and electric matter, that we are indebted for this kind of rain attending storms. The rain does not begin to fall until those three elementary parts of water are united in the atmosphere. The absence of one of those elements always foretells the end of the rain.

I shall now proceed to other phenomena.

Many philosophers have long suspected that there is a kind of identity between the electric fluid and the matter which causes thunder: the proof of this was reserved for Dr. Franklin to demonstrate. This philosopher carried his electric experiments even into the region of the clouds; he drew the electric fluid from the atmosphere, used it instead of our machines, and obtained most of those effects which we obtain by artificial means. From this moment, philosophers were in haste to extend the dominion of electricity, by connecting it with a great number of phenomena. White clouds, falling stars, will-with-a-wisp, were

all attributed to electricity. They ranged in the rank of electric phenomena storms, water-spouts, whirlwinds, earthquakes, subterraneous fires, the aurora borealis, in a word, almost all the hidden operations of nature.

Modern discoveries have emancipated us from many of those errors into which an excess of enthusiasm had carried us.

1. The discovery of the phosphoric gaz has shewn us the true cause of the *ignis fatuus*. Animal and vegetable substances, in a state of putrefaction, all contain phosphorus. Phosphorus, volatilized by heat, rises into the atmosphere, takes fire by its inflammable air, and produces those light flames which the lower regions of the atmosphere exhibit in the evenings of summer.

2. It is a fact well known that volcanos are situated on the borders of the sea. The water from the sea communicates with the subterraneous cavities in which the pyrites lay. Iron decomposes water, and unites with vital air. The inflammable air disengages itself, and soon re-unites in great masses: its elasticity augments, it makes vigorous efforts to break through the prison in which it is inclosed, and the liberty it acquires, by that means, produces those terrible effects which volcanos present us with.

3. To the ears of a philosopher who is well informed in modern discoveries the noise of thunder is only a detonation of the inflammable and vital air, produced by the re-establishment of the equilibrium of electric matter. The rapidity of motion in this fluid, escaping from a body which is surcharged with it, to pass into another which is in want, cannot alone produce this effect. How can we conceive that the swiftness in the passage of a fluid but little restricted, can produce such violent explosions? We may in vain attempt to imitate it by the help of our machines. The attentive eye of an impartial philosopher will never confound the dreadful

ful noise of thunder with the trifling discharge of a bottle. Whatever may have been asserted, thunder can never be perfectly imitated in our laboratories, but by causing the electric matter to pass through a mixture of vital and inflammable air.

I shall conclude this paper by a new explanation of the Aurora Borealis.

1. Mr. Cavendish has shewn that if the electric matter is thrown into a mixture of phlogiston, heated gas, and vital air, it will produce a nitric acid, from the nitrous acid or nitrous gas, agreeable to the connection which exists between the two airs which form this mixture.

2. The immortal Sheele has observed that the nitric acid exposed to the sun acquires more colour and volatility. This has been the result of my observations on this subject. I placed a receiver in a saucer, containing nitric acid, which I exposed to the sun, in the month of February last; a quarter of an hour after the acid was coloured, and the receiver filled with vapours, very red and very volatile, which remained long in the receiver.

3. It is well known, that in the bottles which contain the nitrous acid a vapour, very red and very volatile, is perceived above the acid, which never condenses.

4. The nitrous gas in contact with the atmospheric air, exhales vapours which fly up into the atmosphere.

The experiments throw a great light on the formation of the Aurora Borealis. The poles are always free from those brilliant meteors. In the polar regions the solar heat is but small, the decomposition of water insensible, and the production of inflammable air almost nothing. The higher regions of the polar atmosphere do not contain any inflammable air: they can offer to the electric matter only a mixture of phlogiston, heated and vital air. The re-establishment of electric fluid, combines and fixes these æri-

form substances. The nitric acid, the nitrous acid, or the nitrous gas, are produced by the connection between the vital and phlogisticated air. A large quantity of red and volatile vapours rise suddenly above the atmosphere to form the meteor known by the name of the Aurora Borealis.

Most philosophers attribute the aurora borealis to the electric matter which, they say, flies from all parts towards the poles, when some circumstances favourable to its expansion permits it to rise into the superior regions of the atmosphere. This system, besides that it is founded on deceitful experiments, will not agree with certain circumstances attending this meteor. The opinion I have given respecting the aurora borealis, seems to me to unite the advantages of having for its foundation some incontestible principles, with that of explaining with facility the circumstances which accompany this phenomenon. It is easy to conceive why an *aurora borealis* does not appear towards the pole. The higher regions of the polar atmosphere afford only a mixture of vital and phlogisticated air. In the torrid and temperate zones, the electric matter finds always in the higher parts of the atmosphere a mixture of vital and inflammable air ready for the composition of water. Thus these regions are always the theatre of thunder, which is never heard in the polar regions.

I may possibly be accused of having that excessive enthusiasm for modern discoveries, with which I have accused the electric philosophers. But if it is observed that my opinions do not contradict the laws of nature, and that they do otherwise carry strong marks of analogy, I flatter myself, they will at least be received as the most plausible conjectures that have hitherto appeared on some of the most remarkable phenomena of nature.

ANECDOTES OF LONDON.

BY MR. PENNANT.

NEAR St. Swithin's church is a remnant of antiquity, which some have supposed to have been British; a stone, which might have formed a part of a Druidical circle, or some other object of the ancient religion, as it is placed near the center of the Roman precincts: others have conjectured it to have been a miliary stone, and to have served as a standard, from which they began to compute their miles. This seems very reasonable, as the distances from the neighbouring places coincide very exactly. At all times it has been preserved with great care, was placed deep in the ground, and strongly fastened with bars of iron. It seems preserved like the *Palladium* of the city. It is at present cased like a relique, within free-stone, with a hole left in the middle, which discovers the original. Certainly superstitious respect had been paid to it; for, when the notorious rebel Jack Cade passed by it, after he had forced his way into the city, he struck his sword on London Stone, saying, "Now is Mortimer lord of this citie;" as if that had been a customary ceremony of taking possession.

In digging the foundation for the rebuilding of St. Paul's, was found a vast cemetery: first lay the Saxons, in graves lined with chalk-stones, or in coffins of hollowed stones; beneath them had been the bodies of the Britons, placed in rows; abundance of ivory and boxen pins, about six inches long, marked their places. These were supposed to have fastened the shrouds in which the bodies were wrapped. These perishing, left the pins entire. In the same row, but deeper, were Roman urns, intermixed, lamps, lacrymatories; fragments of sacrificial vessels were also discovered, in digging towards the north-east corner,

and in 1675, not far from the east corner, at a considerable depth, beneath some flinty pavement, were found numbers of vessels of earthen ware, and of glass, of most exquisite colours and beauty; some inscribed with the names of deities, heroes, or men of rank: others ornamented with variety of figures, in bas relief, of animals and of rose-trees. Tesselula of jasper, porphyry, or marble, such as form the pavements we so often see, were also discovered. Also glass beads and rings, large pins of ivory and bone, tusks of boars, and horns of deers, sawn through; also coins of different emperors, among them some of Constantine, which at once destroys the conjecture of Mr. Maitland, who supposes that this collection was flung together at the sacking of London by our injured Boadicea.

The second of our monarchs who lies here, (in Westminster-Abbey) is the renowned Edward I. in an altar tomb, as modest and plain as his fame was great. A long inscription, in monkish lines, imperfectly records the deeds of the conqueror of Scotland and of the antient Britons. In 1770, antiquarian curiosity was so urgent with the respectable Dean of Westminster, as to prevail on him to permit certain members of the society, under proper regulations, to inspect the remains of this celebrated hero, and discover, if possible, the composition which gave such duration to the human body.

In the minute relation given by that able and worthy antiquary, of the late Sir Joseph Ayloffe, bart. almost every particular is given. On lifting up the lid of the tomb, the royal body was found wrapped in a strong, thick linen cloth, *waxed* on the inside: the head and face were covered with a *sudarium*, or face-cloth

cloth, of crimson farfnet, wrapped in three folds, conformable to the napkin used by our Saviour in his way to his crucifixion, as we are assured by the church of Rome. On flinging open the external mantle, the corpse was discovered in all the ensigns of majesty, richly habited. The body was wrapped in a fine linnen cere-cloth, closely fitted to every part, even to the very fingers and face. The writs *de cera renovando cerea corpus regis Edwardi primi* being extant, gave rise to this search. Over the cere-cloth was a tunic of red silk damask; above that a stole of thick, white tissue crossed the breast, and on this, at six inches distant from each other, quatrefoils of philigree work, of gilt metal, set with false stones, imitating rubies, sapphires, amethysts, &c. and the intervals between the square foils on the stole, powdered with minute white heads, tacked down into a most elegant embroidery, in form not unlike what is called the true-lover's knot. Above these habits was the royal mantle of rich crimson satin, fastened on the left shoulder with a magnificent *fibula*, of gilt metal, richly chased, and ornamented with four pieces of red and four of blue, transparent paste, and twenty-four more pearls.

The corpse, from the waist downwards, is covered with a rich cloth of figured gold, which falls down to the feet, and is tucked beneath them. On the back of each hand was a quatre-foil, like those on the stole. In his right-hand is a sceptre with a cross of copper, gilt, and of elegant workmanship, reaching to the right shoulder. In the left-hand is the rod and dove, which passes over the shoulder, and reaches the royal ear. The dove stands on a ball, placed on three ranges of oak leaves, of enamelled green; the dove is white enamel: on the head is a crown, charged with trefoils made of gilt metal. The head is lodged in the cavity of the stone coffin, always observable in those receptacles

of the dead. I refer the reader to the *Archæologia*, for the other minutia attendant on the habiting of the royal corpse. It was dressed in conformity to antient usage, even as early as the time of the Saxon Sebert: and the use of the cere-cloth is continued to our days. In the instance of our late king, the two ferjeant-surgeons had 122l. 8s. 9d. each for opening and embalming; and the apothecary 152l. for a fine double cere-cloth, and a due quantity of rich perfumed aromatic powders.

In walking along the street, in my youth, or the side next to the Fleet Prison, I have often been tempted by the question, *Sir, will you be pleased to walk in and be married?* Along this most lawless space, was hung the frequent sign of a male and female hand conjoined, with "Marriages performed within," written beneath. A dirty fellow invited you in. The parson was seen walking before his shop, a squalid, profligate figure, clad in a tattered, plain nightgown, with a fiery face, and ready to couple you for a dram of gin, or a roll of tobacco. Our great chancellor, Lord Hardwick, put these *dæmons* to flight, and saved thousands from the misery and disgrace which would be entailed by these extemporary, thoughtless unions.

In the church of St. Alban, Wood Street, hung among Plebeian skulls, was the head of the unfortunate James V. of Scotland: his body, for a long time, had remained embalmed at the monastery at Shene. After the dissolution, it was cast among some rubbish, where some workmen wantonly cut off the head, which was taken by Young, glazier to Queen Elizabeth, who was struck with its sweetness, arising from the embalming materials. He kept it, for some time, at his house in Wood Street, but at last gave it to the sexton, to bury, among other bones, in the charnel-house. Such is often the end of ambitious greatness.

STATB

STATE OF SURGERY IN THE TIME OF HENRY VIII.

FROM THE SAME.

I Remember (says Mr. Gale) when the chirurgic art and that of shaving went, in this city, hand in hand, as they do to this day in several parts of Europe. The barbers were first incorporated by Edward IV. in 1461, but, prior to that, they had been formed into a body by Thomas Morestead, surgeon to Henry IV, V, and VI, who died in 1450, and the grant had been solicited by him, Jacques Frier, physician to Edward IV. and John Hobbes, his physician and surgeon: at length they were incorporated by that prince, and his brother Gloucester, in the name of St. Coome and Damianus, brethren, physicians, and martyrs. The company prospered for some time, till, finding that numbers had crept in among them, less skilled in the lancet than the razor, from the want of power of examining into the skill of the chirurgical members, they got a new charter from Henry VIII. in which both professions were united. A fine picture, by Holbein, preserved in their hall, commemorates the event.

It will be curious to turn back from these times to those of Henry VIII. to compare the art of surgery; when, at one time, there were very few, as Gale tells us, worthy to be called surgeons. His account of those employed in the army is very humorous. "I remember," says he, "when I was in the wars at *Muttreil*, (*Montreuil*) in the time of that famous prince King Henry VIII, there was a great rabblement, that took on them to be surgeons; some were sow-gelders, and some horse-gelders, with tinkers and cobblers. This noble sect did such great cures, that they got themselves a perpetual name; for, like as *Theffalus's* sect were called *Theffalians*, so was this noble rabblement, for their notorious cures, called *dog-leeches*; for,

"in two dressings, they did commonly make their cures whole and sound for ever; so that they neither felt heat nor cold, nor no manner of pain after. But when the Duke of Norfolk, who was then general, understood how the people did die, and that of small wounds, he sent for me, and certain other surgeons, commanding us to make search how these men came to their deaths; whether it were by the grievousness of their wounds or by the lack of knowledge of the surgeons; and we, according to our commandment, made search through all the camp, and found many of the same good fellows, which took upon them the names of surgeons; not only the names, but the wages also. We asking of them whether they were surgeons or no, they said they were; we demanded with whom they were brought up, and they, with shameless faces, would answer, either with one cunning man, or another, which was dead. Then we demanded of them what chirurgery stuff they had to cure men withal; and they would shew us a pot, or a box, which they had in a budget, wherein was such trumpery as they did use to grease horses heels withal, and laid upon scabbed horses backs, with rowal, and such like: and others, that were cobblers and tinkers, they used shoe-maker's wax, with the rust of old pans, and made therewithal a noble salve, as they did term it: but, in the end, this worthy rabblement was committed to the Marshalsea, and threatened, by the duke's grace, to be hanged for their worthy deeds, except they would declare the truth what they were, and of what occupations; and in the end they did confess, as I have declared to you before."

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ACCOUNT OF THE GERMAN THEATRE.

[Continued from Page 32.]

THE plots of these dramas are generally simple, but rather diffuse, a fault to which the freedom from critical restraints of time and place, claimed by the authors of several of them, is apt to lead. They are frequently too easily anticipated in their conclusion; and, in the conduct, they do not produce many of those striking theatrical situations, which, even to the most enlightened spectators, are highly pleasing, but which seems absolutely essential to the entertainment of an ordinary audience. In perusing some of their plays which have obtained the most universal reputation in Germany, one is led to give the audiences of that country credit for a high degree of refinement, when we are told of the unbounded applause they bestow on those pieces, the merit of which does by no means lie in striking incidents, or in what are called *coups de theatre*, but consists chiefly in a minute development of feeling and sensibility, a refinement and eloquence of sentiment which one would imagine the bulk of the people could neither understand nor admire. Perhaps, however, an audience may admire what it does not perfectly understand, if a few sentimentalists of high name do but shew it what it ought to admire. In sentiment, as in religion, there is a mystical sort of enthusiasm, which warms the fancy without submitting itself to the understanding; in sentiment, as in religion, enthusiasm is easily communicated. High refinements, which go far beyond real life, catch with a rapidity of infection. They are the creed of a sect, which is always propagated with more ardor and bigotry than the rational belief of a community.

In the conduct of the fable, some of their authors, as I mentioned before, do not confine themselves to any observance of the unities of time and

place, but assume a licence of transporting their audience, even in the midst of what they call (though by what rule I know not) an *act*, into different provinces and distant periods. In the reading, this offends but little; and even in representation, it offends less than some of the disciples of Aristotle are apt to suppose.

The morals of these German plays are in general unexceptionable. There is no approach towards indelicacy, except in one or two instances in the more serious scenes, to a kind of indelicacy, arising for a want of that nice sense of dignity and decorum which the family of the muse requires. There is, however, a licence of thinking on some subjects, that tinctures pretty strongly of several of the performances in question; and by a combination not unfrequent among sentimentalists, the language is highly virtuous, while the action is libertine and immoral. From the author of the Sorrows of Werter, this does not surprise; but in a play, written by a person of a grave character, (Professor Unzer of *Altona*,) one would hardly expect to have found a prayer to the virgin concluded by a solemn resolution of suicide, and the strength of mind with which the heroine looks on the poisoned beverage before her, ascribed, in the very language of devotion, to the power and efficacy of prayer.

Besides the delicacy of decorum, and propriety in the manners and the language of a play, there is a sort of delicacy in its very passions and distresses, which highly polished theatres require, the neglect of which is disagreeable to the feelings and the taste of a very refined people. The sorrow that melts, not the anguish that tears, the fear that agitates, not the terror that overwhelms the soul, are the passions which such an audience relishes

relishes in tragedy. The German theatre does not allow for this delicacy of feeling. Its horrors and its distress assault the imagination and the heart of the reader with unsparing force; it loves to trace those horrors and that distress through every scene and every situation in which they can be found, and in its display of human passions and human sorrows, is little solicitous to mitigate the atrocity of the one, or the poignancy of the other. This strong painting will sometimes disgust the delicacy of him who has been used to the finer tints of the modern school; but it gives room for that sublimity and boldness of picture, which is often ill exchanged for the flat and insipid representation of restrained passions and chastened manners.

Baron Riefbeck, himself a German, who is therefore no bad authority on this subject, accounts for the prevalence of high-wrought passion on the German stage, from the particular mode of living in Germany. "The different classes of people," says he, "do not mingle so much in the German towns as they do in France. To every thing which belongs to nobility, or which has the name of nobility, or is in any way attached to the court, the German in middle life can have no access. His knowledge of life, and taste for social pleasures, is much more confined than that of our people, (the Baron writes in the character of a Frenchman), nor does he, like the inhabitants of a moderately large French town, enter into the innumerable incidents and accidents of common life. This want of interest in usual virtues and vices, this insensibility to the little events of ordinary life, obliges the German to look for strong emotions and caricatures to entertain him on the stage; whereas the Frenchman is contented with a piece of much finer wrought plot, and willingly sees the people he lives and is acquainted with represented on the stage."

To this account of the Baron's way,

I think, be added something peculiar in the national character, which, like that of the English, is of an ardent, thinking, serious cast.

To men of this disposition, the lighter and more ordinary views of life and manners are not interesting. They call for deeper and more impressive scenes, scenes of high passion and strong emotion. The Germans have accordingly adopted, with the greatest eagerness, the English tragedies most calculated to please this turn of mind. Shakespeare is their favourite author, and the model of some of their most popular tragedies. To this idea, the love of sentiment I have before taken notice of, may be easily reconciled. The sentiment these plays exhibit, is not the sentiment one meets with in French authors; it is not the nice and delicate feeling of the *petites morales*, or manners; it is that deep impassioned sensibility, which resides in serious and ardent minds, which can brood with melancholy, or kindle with enthusiasm.

In the German comedy, somewhat of the same thoughtfulness, phlegm perhaps a Frenchman might call it, may be traced. We find not the gay and sportive language with which the comic muse of France forms her lively and elegant dialogue; nor those nice and delicate tints with which her light and flying pencil marks the pictures of her scene; but a style more serious and reflective in the one, and colours more strong and hard in the other.

A circumstance very observable in the German theatre, is the frequent minuteness and prolixity of the scene. This is naturally the case in an early and unrefined period of the drama. To select striking and luminous parts of a story, or of a series of actions, to exhibit those in one strong point of view, and to leave the subordinate parts to be filled up by the imagination of the reader or the spectator, is a sort of abstraction which belongs to a more advanced and cultivated period. In the first rude essays of painting, one tincture contains different actions of

the

the same persons; and, in early narrative, every circumstance that passed, and every word that was uttered by the persons of whom the relation speaks, is introduced. In dramatic poetry, in the same way, the earlier and less cultivated poets are not contented with shewing the persons of the drama only in the great and important scenes to which the course of their story leads; they exhibit every concomitant scene in which those persons may be supposed to have been concerned. The more inventive imagination an author possesses, the more he is liable to this fault, if that imagination is not chastened by learning, and regulated by taste.

Richardson, who may perhaps be ranked next to Shakespeare among our authors of untutored genius, is an instance of this in later times. His painting is always in nature; but his canvas is often filled with unnecessary figures, which add to the size, while they diminish the effect of the picture. Shakespeare (as might more readily be expected) is in this particular extremely faulty; and his German admirers have not corrected this fault in their imitations of him. They are more defective than he in what may be called the unity of dialogue, i. e. in making their personages speak only what is natural and important to their situations, and to the conduct of the piece; an error to which several of their scenes owe a degree of languor, as well as length, which is apt to fatigue the reader, and must have required very good speaking indeed, not to have tired the audience.

The style of these volumes is in general bold, forcible, and rich; in some places perhaps rather too florid and ornamented. This is apt to strike us more in prose, in which most of the pieces in these collections are written, and into which they are all translated, than it does in verse; because elevation of language is more expected in the latter than in the former. It has been generally held as a maxim in dramatic dialogue, that the pathetic should be expressed in the

simplest language; that description and moral sentiment may admit of the pomp of verse, and the ornaments of eloquence, but that passion and distress do not allow of such decorations, because they bring the mind into a situation which swelling or figurative language does not suit. This is evidently just to a certain degree. The mind, occupied with and full of its own feelings, has no leisure to study the expressions in which those feelings are vented; yet I think it will be found in nature, that a certain elevated diction will often be that in which the mind will pour its most genuine and deepest sorrows. There is a pride and dignity in sorrow which renders it eloquent; which, rising above the level of ordinary things, speaks in a style more lofty than that of common life. I believe it will also be found, that, in composition, the assumed loftiness of language will have some effect in producing a loftiness of idea; that "the words that glow," will sometimes, as it were, create "the thoughts that burn." I think it is Plato who, somewhere in his works, makes a remark of this kind as to poetry, whose measure and majestic march give an inspiration to the poet, which the train of thought in common language would not have produced. And I am persuaded that the dramatic writer who, in the fervour of composition, gives to the mistress of his fancy a language of that elevated kind, will sometimes, in the very flow and current of his words, feel his heart swell, and tears gush from his eyes, with an energy of passion which a more ordinary diction would have failed to rouse. It must, however, at the same time, be confessed, that the most common fault lies on the opposite side; and that authors of but moderate genius often invest their characters, rather in the parade of words than in the dignity of sentiment, rather in a coldly imitative phrase of feeling than in feeling itself. A fault of this kind is sometimes discernable in the dramas before us, where, in the development

of sentimental distress, the characters talk rather than feel their situation; where the poet, refining on his art, rather colours than draws the picture of the scene, or, to pursue the allusion, gives us shades of language instead of shades of thought.

This laboured display of sentiment and sensibility is liable to the general objection which strikes one in every dramatic performance, as lying against the persons of the drama informing us of what passes in their minds, not by what the scene shews in their actions, or what the situation naturally leads them to say, but, if we may be allowed to resort to the plain honest confession of Mr. Bayes, in order to give an opportunity of introducing *good things*. To this fault, the simple and the polished state of the drama are equally liable; the first from that chase of images and analogies which the luxuriance of fancy dictates, and which taste has not yet taught her to restrain; the other, from a rigid observance of order and unity, which adds to the narrative in proportion as it limits the exhibition of the scene. We find accordingly this defect in many passages of the older poets; and not less, and indeed in a much more continued strain, in the modern dramatists, particularly the French, where the *tirade*, or string of fine lines, is often introduced, not to express the feelings of the speakers, but merely to shew the eloquence of the poet.

In my enumeration of the pieces contained in this collection, I mentioned that most of those which are called comedies, rather come under the denomination of *dramas*, containing a delineation of the affections and passions of ordinary life, more allied to tragedy than to comedy, being only related to comedy in its persons, but to tragedy in its sentiments and its sufferings. Its sufferings, however, are rather of feeling than of situation, which is one great reason of the interest it excites in that class of people, a very amiable one, whose minds from nature, reading, or habit, pos-

sess an extensive and high strained delicacy and sensibility. The situation and distresses of the persons represented in it, are but little removed from the situation in which that class of readers are placed, or those distresses which they often feel. Hence perhaps no species of the drama may be supposed to have a stronger effect on actual life and conduct. This might lead to an interesting moral inquiry, for which the present is not the proper place, and which indeed has not been unnoticed by several late moral writers. In general, I think we may venture to pronounce these dramas favourable both to moral principle and to the practice of virtue. To the former, they are allowed, even by their adversaries, to be friendly; to the latter, it may perhaps be contended that they do not always contribute, or at best that they only produce that momentary impression, which passes over the mind like a golden dream, amusing to the fancy, but without any effect on our actual conduct or dispositions. The French dramas of this species, and some of the German ones in this collection, which seem to have been formed on these models, have a good deal of that pompous wordy declamation of virtue and sensibility, which, like every species of bombastic writing, is extremely popular at its first introduction, and generally maintains a number of partizans, even when assailed by the weapons of criticism and good sense. Such a common-place sort of weakness hurts equally the good effects of the drama, as a lesson of morals, and the entertainment to be derived from it as a work of taste. To the enemies of virtue, the ridicule is open; to her friends, the exhibition is painful; it is like the dotage of a person we love, which, though we cannot laugh at, we are constrained to blush for. Besides, in moral effect, it loses the advantage which, as I observed above, this species of drama possesses, of approaching nearer than any other to ourselves. When we see so little truth or life in the picture,

picture, when the sentiments soar to airy a height, we feel them as those of another world, which, if we should even admire, we will never concern ourselves to imitate.

It must, however, be confessed, that though such weak passages will naturally produce those effects among people of better informed judgements and more ripened taste; yet, by the less refined part of an ordinary audience, they are often received with that genuine feeling and applause, which, as they are introduced by virtue, are friendly to her interests. At the representation of some of those scenes, where very laudable, but very common-place maxims, were pompously brought forth, and received with loud plaudits, I confess, though I

thought meanly enough of the genius of the poet, I have thought, and been happy while I thought highly of the people. The people, whose opinions may often be folly, whose conduct may sometimes be madness, but whose sentiments are almost always honourable and just; the people, whom an author may delight with bombast, may amuse with tinsel, may divert with indecency, but whom he cannot mislead in principle, nor harden into inhumanity.

It is only the mob in the side-boxes, who, in the coldness of self-interest, or the languor of out-worn dissipation, can hear unmoved the sentiments of composition, of generosity, or of virtue.

[To be continued.]

OF THE GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE, OF ITS REVENUES, AND OF THE FOREIGN AMBASSADORS.

BY THE COUNT DE FERRIERES SAUVERAËUF.

THE Ottoman empire is divided into many extensive governments, under two lieutenant-generals, who command under the title of Seraskiers, one over the European, the other over the Asiatic territories. The provinces, and many considerable cities, are under the government of Pachas; this dignity is conferred by the delivery of tails, a kind of military ensign, surmounted with a golden ball, round which some white horse hair hangs like fringe, ornamented with silk strings and golden acorns. There are Pachas of one, two, or three tails, according to the employments they are intrusted with, and the consequence of the governments bestowed on them.

The revenues of the Sultan arise from his domains, which are very considerable, from the imposts and contributions which the Pachas, or governors, raise from the provinces, and the customs, which are ten per cent. for the Mussulmans and their tributaries, and three per cent. for Europeans; the tribute, or capitation, of

the Christians, produces also considerable sums; to this must be added the spoils of the great officers of the empire, and of the Pachas, which the Sultan inherits, excepting those few articles of their property which are in use in their families. Those who sometimes lose their heads, only on account of their treasures, add considerably to the revenue of the prince, who also finds powerful resources in the finances of Mecca, administered by the chief of the black eunuchs.

The musti, or interpreter of the Coran, decides in all points respecting religion, and every thing which concerns the government of the mosques, more particularly concerns him; he nominates the *mulas*, or ministers of religion, who are sent into the provinces, to superintend those functions in the districts: those are as submissive to the emperor as the original bishops of Rome were to the emperors, for the musti is sometimes deprived of his place without murmuring, and a successor is appointed, without occasioning any schism.

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The *Coran*, their book of laws, theoretical and religious, and the *Multeka*, which is a general code of customs which has been long observed in the distribution of justice, and even to direct the principal operations of government, serve as a basis for whatever respects administration. The Divan, or great council, at which the Grand Vizir presides, and with whom he deliberates every Wednesday and Friday, may not deviate from it in any respect, and the Sultan conforms himself religiously thereto. It is only in unforeseen or extraordinary cases that his highness enjoys an arbitrary power, and which he may not exercise either in political or religious matters, without the decision of the musti, who has the right of representing whether the order is agreeable to the *Coran*. The executions, in criminal matters, cannot take place without the decree of the *Scieflam*, the supreme judge, who must declare that the sentence is agreeable to the *Multeka*.

A less limited power is invested in the Vizir and Capitan Pacha, for inferior affairs, who have a power to put to death those they judge guilty: the governors of provinces have likewise the same power; but they ought always to attend to the precepts of the *Coran* and *Multeka*, and agreeable to which the tribunals erected in all the cities, and the cadis, or civil judges, ought to exercise justice. At all times, those who trespass against this law, have answered for the faults of their administration either to the Sultan, who has always the bow-string ready, or to the Janissaries, who finish the lives of those whose iniquities are complete, by cutting them to pieces.

When we once become acquainted with the Turks, we are convinced that this summary method of distributing justice is the only one which suits them.

The Sultans have never been accustomed to keep ambassadors or residents at the courts of foreign powers: it is only on very important affairs that the Sublime Port sends am-

bassadors; they treat those who are sent there with great magnificence, although there is a very essential difference in the honours paid them, according to the power of their sovereigns, or the value of the presents they bring, which is always the best part of their credentials.

The Sultan thinks himself so much above other potentates, that it is with great difficulty he gives the title of emperor to other sovereigns, and the King of France is the only one in Europe to whom he grants that honour.

Almost all the powers of Europe, either from commercial or political views, have made treaties with the Port, which they call capitulations, and which express all the rights, privileges, and franchises, which are reciprocally granted to them. They keep either an ambassador, an envoy, or a resident, at Constantinople; that of France has the pre-eminence: this distinction, which has arisen from an ancient and uninterrupted friendship, sometimes secures the French ambassador a boundless confidence, and the Port consults them in all important affairs.

The Port makes no distinction between ambassadors and envoys; the latter are synonymous in the Turkish language. It is only the power of their masters, or a closer and more intimate connection, which procures them a superior degree of credit in Constantinople.

There is an ambassador resident from the King of England; he is particularly directed to see that the correspondence of India, by the ways of Bassora and Suez, meets with no interruption.

Venice, ever attending to her ancient customs, calls the ambassador she sends, every three years, to the Port, the Bayle: the Bayle, formerly, when the republic had possessions in the Levant, had power to take off the head of a Venetian subject; but at present he has nothing but the privilege of wearing the same kind of bonnet as his doge, when he has an audience

audience of the Sultan. A few years ago, the Bayle was obliged to dismiss his Sclavonian guard, who had massacred two soldiers belonging to the navy, before his door. This produced a general insurrection of those troops, who would have set fire to the palace of Venice, and cut all the Sclavonians to pieces: the Captain Pacha, who repaired thither, had the greatest difficulty to restrain their fury, mad to revenge the death of their comrades.

Holland maintains an ambassador either to support or renew, as appears necessary, the capitulation which assures the commerce of the Levant to the United Provinces.

The renown of the great Frederic has reached the Ottomans: they say the Prussians are brave, and fight well; they have given the Prussian envoy the more favourable reception, because he has told them, that his master and the emperor were not good friends.

Although the Spaniards have no commerce with the Ottomans, yet the King of Spain has an envoy at Constantinople: all the negotiations he can have, must be to promise that the Russian fleet shall neither anchor at Cadiz or pass the straits. The Neapolitans, too, although they dare not venture beyond Sicily, from a dread of the Barbarians, have, however, an envoy, whose credit rises or falls according to circumstances. The envoy of Sweden, who has to protect the Swedes in the Levant, and to maintain at the Port a balance between the rival powers, has acquired a great degree of consequence and credit, since the Swedish fleet has been able to check the progress of the Russian Squadron, who would otherwise have ravaged the Archipelago.

The King of Denmark's *factotum*, who is at once chargé d'affaires and interpreter, is of little consideration, as the Divan is not ignorant of the treaty between his Danish majesty and the Empress of Russia, and is by no means favourable to those who are enemies to the crescent. The ambassador of Poland, with difficulty,

preserves his consequence, by assuring the Sublime Port that his republic will not furnish the Russian army with provisions, and by no means grant them permission to pass through their territories, into Moldavia.

The ambassador of Ragusa is himself the herald of his republic's disgrace, which, apparently protected by the emperor, but really tributary to the Ottoman Port, finds itself between the anvil and the hammer.

Such are the ambassadors and ministers resident at Constantinople: on their arrival, the Port assigns them a company of Janissaries, as a guard, and a considerable sum of money, to pay the expences of their household; this treatment is continued for some months, until they go to the audience of the Grand Vizir: they repair thither with the most brilliant equipage, attended by all the persons of their nation then at Constantinople. The Mussulmans having a custom not to rise up before Christians, to avoid all disputes on the subject, the Vizir presents himself at one door of the hall of audience, and the ambassador enters, at the same moment, at the other, delivers his credentials, sits down on a seat, as the Vizir does on his sofa. After some obliging discourse, the Vizir presents the ambassador with a *velisse*, gives *caftani* to the persons in his train, who are served with coffee, sherbet, and perfume. When the ambassador retires, he is plentifully sprinkled with rose water; the Grand Vizir rises also; but to make this piece of politeness agree with the prejudices of his countrymen, he pretends a necessity of returning to his closet.

Some time after the ambassador has his audience of the Grand Signor, he proceeds thither, mounted on a horse from his highness's stables, and preceded by several officers who are sent to meet him: he is conducted, with his train, into a great hall, where he finds the Grand Vizir and the principal officers of the empire: a plentiful dinner is set before him, and other tables are laid for the persons in his

train.

train. The Sultan has an opportunity of seeing this feast, unperceived, through the lattices of a window. Soon after, the ambassador delivers up his sword, a precaution which has been used ever since an envoy from an Asiatic prince made an attempt to stab the Sultan; and being clothed in a cloak of cloth of gold, as all are who accompany him, and which is more or less brilliant, according to their rank; he is then conducted by two chamberlains, who support him by each arm, and endeavour to make him bow to his highness, who, sitting under a magnificent canopy, the Grand Vizir standing on one side and the principal officers on the other, hears, with great gravity, the ambassador's compliment repeated by an ambassador, who retires in the same order he came. The Sultan does not give any audience of leave, the Grand Vizir alone receives the compliments of those who are recalled.

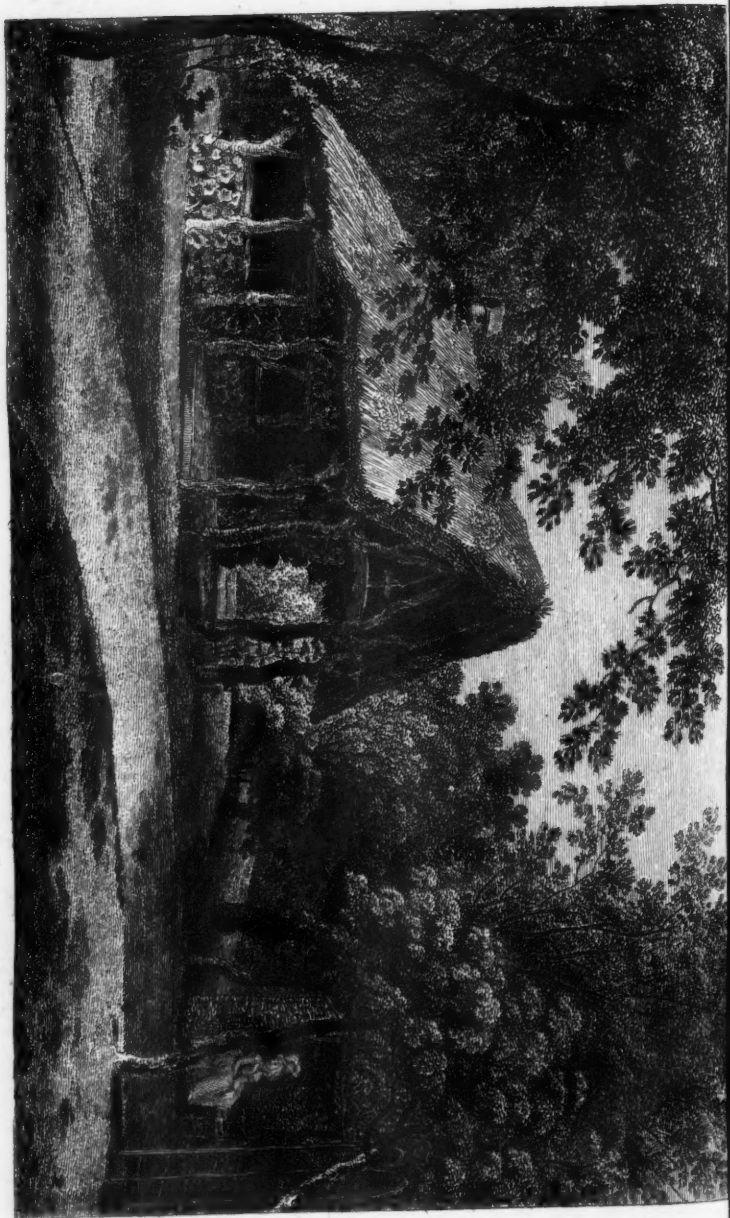
The ambassadors treat of public affairs by the intervention of a *dragoman*, or interpreter, men whose talents are confined merely to a knowledge of the Turkish language, and that of the resident, who employs them. These people apply with the most submissive air to the minister for foreign affairs, respectfully kiss the hem of his garment, and humbly lay before him the subject of their mission. From this shameful submission, which a secretary or a gentleman of the ambassador, if habited like a European, would not be excused, we may judge of the consequence in which the Turks hold ambassadors. These dragomans are born and educated in the Levant, and some are become hereditary in that profession; they have a mixture of European and Oriental manners, which makes them very abject towards the Turks, and inspires them with great pride towards those of their own country. Thus, with an air of consequence, which they seldom put off, they seem always to be ruminating on affairs of importance; but if this dis-

graceful conduct of the interpreters does not throw any lustre on the persons of the ambassadors, it has, however, its advantages. When their dragoman receives any of these repulses, (which are very frequent at the Port) they may, like Theodosius, when his statutes were mutilated, exclaim, "We are not injured."

The ambassadors observe the greatest ceremony among each other; when one of them pays a visit to another, some strokes of a bell, given by the porter, announces his rank, whether ambassador, resident, or envoy. The Janissaries, sitting on their stools, and smoking their pipes, do not disturb themselves, but the livery servants range themselves in a row. The merchants, who are kept at a distance, are only permitted to pay their court on Sundays and feast days. The ambassadors stile their houses palaces; they are situated in the suburbs of Pera. The French ambassador has a fine house at Terapia, situated opposite the entrance of the Black Sea; but the others, which are not so magnificent, are situated at Bayuckdere, a village built at the bottom of the canal, where the vessels wait for a favourable wind to go out of the Bosphorus. Here is a fine meadow, surrounded by charming little hills, and shaded by large trees, which serves as a walk to the inhabitants of the neighbourhood, and the Grand Signor sometimes comes there to pass an afternoon under tents. Those who are fond of hunting may take that diversion, which is permitted to every one in the forest of Belgrade, where there is a pretty village, inhabited by Greeks; here some of the residents have their country houses, but the water is not wholesome, and the marshes in the neighbourhood, heated by the sun, make it a very dangerous residence: at other times it is a very agreeable residence, and the rendezvous of many families from Pera.

The equipages of the ambassadors are not in general very brilliant, although the embassy is very lucrative, for

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View of the Hermitage in the Garden of Lord William Gordon in Scotland

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for which reason, a person is often sent as ambassador only to repair a shattered fortune. There are, however, some of them who will afford a stranger who comes to Constantinople a very good reception, and make up to him by the pleasures of their society, for the little amusement this capi-

tal and its suburbs afford when they have once been visited.

During the Carnival, there are some grand assemblies formed among the ambassadors, who each of them give a ball and feast. Here the wives of the dragomen carefully exhibit their greatest luxuries.

DESCRIPTION OF THE ANNEXED PLATE.

IN the Green Park; adjoining to Piccadilly, stands a pleasant house, situated on an eminence, designed for the residence of the deputy ranger of St. James's Park. This house had nothing remarkable belonging to it until the Right Hon. Lord Wm. Gordon, brother to the Duke of Gordon, was, a few years ago, appointed deputy ranger, since which his lordship has been employed, and has expended considerable sums of money, in enlarging and improving the house and gardens, and it is now one of the most delightful residences in the vicinity of London. To enlarge the garden, a very considerable spot of ground has, by permission, been taken into it from

the Park, shrubberies and a wilderness laid out, and agreeable seats erected. Among other improvements and ornaments is an hermitage, a view of which is annexed, constructed in a romantic and picturesque style. The materials of which, the pillars, seats, &c. are composed, are peat turf, brought from Scotland: the simplicity of the erection, the agreeable retreat it affords, and the pleasing view, altogether make it a singular erection, and especially when it is considered that this seat for contemplation and agreeable thoughts is, as it were, in the town, we think such another situation is scarcely to be met with.

ON THE INDEPENDENCE OF AMERICA.

IN various instances we have seen the conclusions of the wisest politicians overturned by experience. The events which seem to threaten the dissolution of a state are frequently discovered to redound to its prosperity, or conduce to its safety. The gloomy apprehensions of destruction to the British empire, from the independence of America, are dissipated, by reflecting on the distinguished rank this country holds in Europe, the wealth which it possesses, and the resources which it enjoys. When the temporary evils attending the revolution shall have ceased to operate, posterity may, perhaps, rejoice in their deliverance from an incumbrance which added only to the ideal dignity, while it diminished the real strength, of the nation. The

testimony of ages may be adduced to shew that the extension of the dominions of a state beyond its natural limits is a sacrifice of national grandeur to giddy ambition. The unwieldy fabrics raised by the hands of the Assyrian and Persian despots sunk beneath their own weight. The Macedonian power declined from the moment of the death of its author. The generous policy of the Romans, in bestowing upon their vanquished enemies the privileges of citizens, insured success to their arms, and gave stability to their empire. What the sword of republican virtue had acquired, the vigor of monarchical government preserved: but the system was too vast to remain permanent; human skill was unable to sustain it, and the cause of its magni-

ficence

science became the source of its decay. The form of government established in this island is ill adapted to the preservation of territories at a distance. The public spirit and thirst for glory, which are the fundamental principles of the democratical constitution, impel to conquest. The uncontrolled authority which the absolute monarch enjoys over the lives and fortunes of his people enables him to execute his projects with facility and dispatch: his subjects are bound to obey his will, without daring to inquire into the justice or propriety of his mandates. It will be found, by appealing to history, that the most extensive acquisitions have been made by nations who lived under the one or other of these two forms of government. The same principles give energy to the modes by which those acquisitions are preserved. But despotism has the superiority in this respect. The ardour of genuine patriotism and valour subsides very soon, and when the world was subdued, the Romans submitted to the sway of an haughty tyrant, and under him and his successors their empire flourished for ages. The descendants of Othman and Tamerlane preserve the kingdoms which those warriors obtained to this day. The moderation of an aristocratical constitution, to which that of Great Britain nearly approximates, is rather calculated to promote tranquillity, in a small state, than to subjugate or regulate an immense territory. In no country was greater obedience paid to the laws than in Sparta, the system of policy of which nearly resembled our own. The attempt to spread its dominion terminated in its ruin. Settlements at a distance are open to many, and various attacks, which may prove fatal, if not immediately repelled. In countries where the sovereign has it in his power to keep numerous forces on foot, it is possible to provide for their security. In this island, where the king depends upon his subjects for the means of defending his posses-

sions, it is vain for him to expect he can guard against sudden calamity: much time must necessarily be spent before he can be furnished with supplies adequate to the purpose of such defence; domestic faction may withhold them altogether. It is to its influence, as much as to their own exertions, that the Americans are indebted for their independence, and it must rather excite surprize that we were able to keep our colonies so long, than that we were compelled to relinquish them at last. An extensive empire can seldom be of long duration. A nation, governed as ours is, can scarce ever form one, and if it does, it must uphold it at the certain risque of its own destruction: but if a warlike people are unable to protect the dominions they have acquired, by dint of arms, it is much more difficult for a mercantile nation to preserve the colonies they have planted. Conquests must be limited by the strength of the states which make them; those states must be conscious too great an exertion will be the means of their own downfall. No settled plan of policy was adopted in planting the colonies. Avarice, a much stronger and more insatiable principle than ambition, first suggested the idea of them. Most of the expeditions for that purpose were originally made by individuals, under the impulse of the former passion: although disappointed in the hopes they had formed of discovering mines of gold and silver in the northern regions of the new world, the salubrity of the air, the fruitfulness of the soil, and the commercial advantages resulting from the situation of the country, induced them to settle in it. Their numbers were increased by the crowd of fugitives who fled from England, during the commotions, which were terminated by the restoration. The parent state did not begin to look upon the colonies as of any importance until a considerable period after their original settlement: but she atoned for her neglect by bestow-

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ing peculiar favours upon them, and enduring calamities, upon their account, she had never experienced before: without reflecting on the expense she was incurring by the mode of conduct she adopted, without weighing the advantages she was to reap from the colonies with the difficulties she would be compelled to undergo in support of them, Great Britain plunged herself in debt, sacrificed thousands of her subjects, and endangered her own existence, to protect the American states. To preserve a continent much greater than Europe from the incursions of the natives and the invasion of foreign enemies, was a task far beyond the power of the kingdom to perform: but our capacity was not considered at the time we undertook this task. National pride suggested the measures we pursued. The territory was acquired without difficulty: from thence it was inferred it might be retained with ease. It is with large bodies as with individuals; they put a proper estimate upon objects which they have been at pains to acquire: should they discover them to be prejudicial, they can part with them with cheerfulness. A sudden elevation to grandeur, the sudden influx of wealth, engender presumption, and terminate in ruin. Had the Government originally formed the plan of the settlements, she might have proportioned the benefits she bestowed to those she was likely to receive from the colonization. Possessed of America, almost without their knowledge, the magnitude of the object inflamed the imagination and perverted the judgment of our rulers: avarice suggested the plan, ambition assisted in rearing the superstructure, and the men who enjoyed the benefit of the edifice were the first to level it with the ground.

The learned and sagacious author of the *Spirit of Laws* remarks, "That princes should never think of peopling great countries by colonization; it may sometimes succeed, but when it does, instead of augmenting the power

of a state it divides it; if in any case it is to be tolerated for the sake of commerce, it should be to a very small extent." He illustrates this proposition by the examples of the Spaniards and Portuguese, whose errors in regard to South America and the Indies, have reduced those once powerful states to a very subordinate class in the political scale of Europe. I may add the example of Great Britain to those he has adduced: The principle on which our colonies were planted, militates against the only exception he allows; they extended over half the continent of the new world; they produced no adequate commercial emolument to us; they drained us of many of the most industrious inhabitants of our island; and had not Providence liberated us from the burden, we must soon have sunk under it. From the situation of America, it will appear that the most distant prospect of a commercial indemnification, was chimerical. Agriculture must necessarily be the first employment of those who migrate to an uncultivated country; as this species of labor is less capable of division than any other, it is longer before it comes to perfection. During the progress of its improvement, few hands can be spared to promote the purposes of trade and manufactures; the demand for the necessities of life must be first answered, before attention can be paid to the artificial wants of luxury. Every benefit that Great Britain could derive from America, must be of a commercial nature. The colonies, from their situation, were compelled to consider how to make provision for their internal support, before they could think of regarding the claim of national gratitude. Subsistence was the primary object with them, commerce was a very secondary one; it follows, therefore, that in the beginning of those settlements we could derive little advantage from them. In order to obtain the advantages we so sanguinely expected, we forced trade into the channel of the colonies by all the artifices of the

mercantile system. They reaped all the benefit, we bore every hardship; and what security had we for the possession of them? They never were in a condition of defending themselves, we could not always have it in our power to afford them proper assistance; experience convinced us of the danger we ran of losing them by the invasion of the French and Indians, in the beginning of the war of 1756. Though separated from us by the waves of the Atlantic, exposed to the invasion of myriads of savages, every hour, and in continual apprehension from a foreign enemy, the colonists placed their only hopes of safety in the exertions of Great Britain, and an unsuccessful battle foreboded their extirpation. To retain possessions so disadvantageous on so precarious a tenure, was the height of political folly; and the man who sincerely loves his country, will rejoice in the independence of America, as a fortunate era in our history. Our commercial intercourse will be as beneficial as ever. A similarity of language and manners will induce them to prefer us to others. The momentary alienation of the two nations from each other will soon cease. The recollection of their common origin, and the ties by which they were united together, will stifle the sparks of resentment, and re-kindle the dying embers of affection. That a social principle is implanted in the human breast, is evident to every philosophic mind. The connections which mankind have formed with each other, the peculiar degree of love we bear to those to whom we are related, the predilection we feel for our native land, ascertain this great moral truth, Nation is attached to nation by the remembrance that we are partakers of the same common nature, actuated by similar motives of conduct, and capable of the same improvements in science and virtue. The diversity of manners, behaviour, and religion, prevalent in the world, may tend to weaken this feeling, but it can seldom be totally eradicated;

by uniformity in those respects it acquires greater energy, and operates with greater force. With respect to America and us, this uniformity is perfect; the same love of independence, the same spirit of industry, the same religious sentiments, policy, and habits, form the leading features in the character and government of both. But from a sense of self-interest also the Americans will be led to wish for our friendship. The trade they can carry on with Canada, Nova Scotia, and the West India islands, will be a great source of wealth to them: they will be under the necessity of employing a considerable portion of their own stock for that purpose; by so doing, the quantity of labour in our remaining settlements will be greatly increased. In their dependent state they would not have regarded this branch of commerce, under the idea that the parent state would have supplied all their wants. As they are now on a footing with foreigners, they will be obliged to adopt every method to obtain a preference in the British market: thus a new channel is opened for the consumption of our commodities, which the Americans were formerly supplied with under their value. In case of hostilities, no country enjoys a more favourable opportunity of annoying them. The British shipping which is stationed on their continent enables us to attack them where they are most vulnerable. The prohibition of dealing with them will occasion the most serious alarm. The supplies of men and provisions, with which we can be easily furnished from our possessions, will put it in our power to harass them continually. By proper encouragement, we can provide every article with which they were wont to furnish us. By denying them the participation of our West India trade, we can reduce them to the utmost distress. National affection, invigorated by the operation of self-love and the dread of calamity, will lead the colonies to regard

regard Great Britain with a favourable eye. Instead of a monopoly, which we could with difficulty retain, and which was productive of little advantage, we shall be admitted to a fair proportion of the American commerce, from which we may reap essential benefit. It may justly be presumed that the power of the Spanish monarchy will receive a considerable check from the independence of our colonies: the success which has attended them in their struggle for liberty will rouse the long-oppressed inhabitants of the south to assert the privileges of the human species. The standard of freedom, which was unfurled in the frozen regions of the north, may be elevated on the burning plains of Mexico and Peru. The weapons which gave to the Spaniards the superiority over the natives of those once flourishing kingdoms, may become the instruments of vengeance in the hands of the descendants of those natives to exterminate their tyrants. Another Montezuma may ascend the Mexican throne, and the offspring of the Incas re-assume the sceptre which their ancestors swayed. Those great events, the prospect of which is so pleasing to every well-wisher to his fellow-creatures, may,

in process of time, be achieved by the assistance of our colonists, who possess the spirit which characterises the nation from which they are derived. The sight of oppression is dreadful to one who enjoys the blessing of independence. The prospect of the happiness which the free possess will impel the captive to break his chains. The neighbourhood of despotism will alarm the rising republic; mutual jealousy will take place, and mutual rancour prevail. The cession of the Floridas to Spain was a master-piece of policy in our ministry. Disputes about the boundaries, commerce, or jurisdiction, of the two states, may kindle a flame which probably, sooner or later, will terminate in the subjugation or liberation of Spanish America. Hence a positive good arises to this country: the balance of power will be preserved; the potent family of Bourbon, which so often has threatened slavery to Europe, will be induced to turn their attention towards the preservation of their own possessions: we shall no more be obliged to watch over their ambitious views, but behold them falling into the pit which their own hands have digged.

ANECDOTE OF QUEEN CAROLINE.

(IN THE PHYSIC GARDEN, CHELSEA.)

"I Had not been long there," says a gentleman, "when the *first* in rank of the *fair-sex* came to walk in the garden: I withdrew into a private walk, and left my venerable guide, the old gardener, (his son being abroad) to receive his royal visitant in the province he was placed in. She did not stay long; and when I came to him, he, of his own accord, related to me what had passed. He told me, his royal visitant had enquired into his age; he informed her he was within a few days of 90. "And yet, I fancy," replied the lady, "you could be very willing to live 90 years

longer?"—"Not 19 days, Madam," answered the old gardener, "if it were in my own choice."—"And art thou willing and *fit* to die?" said the lady. "More willing, Madam, and much fitter than to *live*," answered he. Upon which words, the *gracious visitant* took him by the hand, declaring him a *happy man*, and one that she could almost afford to *envy*." Upon this, the writer has these reflections—When *Princes* condescend to such *affability*, they add to the value of *dignity itself*, and drive even inferiors into a right way of thinking.

LETTER

LETTER FROM THE TESHOO LAMA TO WARREN HASTINGS, Esq.
WRITTEN IN 1773. READ BEFORE THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF
EDINBURGH.

THE following letter suggests some very important reflections with regard to the religion of Eastern Asia.

Mr. Boyle, whom out of kindness you were pleased to send into this quarter, having (thank God) arrived here in perfect health, I had, at an auspicious hour, the pleasure of an interview with him, and was rendered so completely happy on the occasion, that it might in reality have been thought an interview with yourself. The letter which you addressed to me and the presents you sent by Mr. Boyle, I have likewise received safe. May your happiness and prosperity daily increase. All the particulars which Mr. Boyle verbally represented to me, I perfectly understand. You were pleased to write me, that you had sent orders for establishing peace with the Debe Doria, agreeable to my request. True, the pleasure these particulars gave me, it is impossible to express. When you, out of pure friendship, are induced thus readily to comply with a request of mine, what return can I make you for it, but offer you my prayers? You have laid me under an obligation to you for ever; and I hope that you will every where prove victorious and successful. What can I say to you of my own situation? In former ages, I repeatedly received my existence from Allahabad, Benares, Patna, Purnea, and other places in Bengal and Orissa; and having ever enjoyed much happiness from those places, I have imbibed a partiality for them; and a sincere love and affection for their inhabitants are strongly impressed on my heart. The well known place of Outragund gave me my last existence; and thanks be to God, the inhabitants of this quarter are all content and satisfied with me. Where my spiritual essence will transmigrate to next, will hereafter be seen. At present, here I sit

in this icy country, in obedience and subjection to the Emperor of China. I have long had a desire of seeing you, and the dominions and people over whom you rule; but hitherto many causes have occurred to prevent me, whatever may happen in future. My travelling so far as your country, to obtain a personal interview with you, must, however, be attended with many unfurmountable difficulties, and Providence has decreed that we should be at this necessary distance from each other. From this consideration, I am induced to request that you will grant me a piece of ground near the sea-side, that I may build a house of worship thereupon; and for the expences of building it, I have sent an hundred pieces of gold by Mr. Boyle, together with some carpets, cloths, and other necessaries, which he will shew you, for the decoration of it; and I request that you will do me the favour to let the house be immediately built, and the things put up; and as soon as the cold seasons sets in, I will certainly dispatch to you some of my own people, if not some of the family of the Lama, who is patron of the Emperor of China. I hope that you will receive them with kindness, and send some of your own servants with them, to visit every place of worship at Allahabad, Benares, &c. for the discharge of their religious duties. As this country is under the absolute sovereignty of the Emperor of China, who maintains an active and unrelaxed controul over all its affairs, and as the forming of any connection or friendship with foreign powers is contrary to his pleasure, it will frequently be out of my power to dispatch any messengers to you. However, it will be impossible to efface the remembrance of you out of my mind; and I shall always pray for the increase of your happiness and prosperity, and, in return, I hope you will frequently favour

favour me with accounts of your health. To avoid troubling you, and intruding longer upon your time with my incorrect stile, I shall conclude this, but beg you will favour me with an answer; and I shall take an opportunity of addressing you by every person who goes from hence into your part of the world. I have represented all particulars to Mr. Boyle, who will communicate them to you, and I hope you will consent to them.

On a separate Paper.

Having, in compliance with my request, put an end to hostilities with the Debe Raja, and established a peace with him, you have thereby conferred upon me the greatest obligation. As

a testimony whereof, I send you a present of a few things; and, although not worth acceptance, I beg you will accept of them, merely upon this consideration, that a green leaf is a present from a hermit.

List of Presents.

- 8 Pieces of China satin.
- 1 Silver talent of China.
- 1 Pelang handkerchief.

I can make no suitable return for your friendship from this part of the world, and I hope you will excuse it. Poorun Ker Cushoo will have the honour of paying his respects to you, and I hope you will grant him your favour and protection in the business with which he is entrusted."

A CERTAIN CURE FOR THE STONE OR GRAVEL.

TO THE EDITORS OF THE LITERARY MAGAZINE.

GENTLEMEN,

A Son of mine now in his seventh year, was born with the stone in his bladder, attended with all the symptoms of that dreadful disorder; in vain were the most eminent of the faculty and the most estimable solvents tried; in this hopeless situation a friend recommended the following receipt, which was strictly adhered to for five weeks before relief appeared, the stone then dissolved, and gradually discharged itself, accompanied with a large quantity of mucilaginous matter, when in about six weeks more the cure was perfected. For the benefit of mankind in general, I submit this case for their perusal, that the afflicted may receive the advantage of so efficacious a remedy. Any enquiries will be cheerfully answered, by

Your humble servant, J. C. S.
June 7, 1790. No. 66, Mark Lane.

RECEIPT.

Take a large handful of the fibres or roots of garden leeks, put thereto two quarts of soft water, let them be close covered and simmer gently over the fire till reduced to one, then pour it off and drink a pint in the course of the day, divided morning, noon, and night; this is a sufficient quantity for an adult.

We ought not to condemn a remedy from its mere simplicity, acknowledging however, that the one annexed to the above letter is not such as we should have conceived as efficacious as there described.—We insert it on account of the fairness with which the proposer offers it to the world.

REVIEW

REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

FOREIGN.

SITUATION POLITIQUE DE LA FRANCE, &c. or Political Situation of France, and its Relation to all the Powers of Europe; demonstrating, by historical Facts and the Principles of sound Policy, the Evil; which the Austrian Alliance has caused to France, and the Errors which the French Ministry have committed from the Treaty of Versailles to the present Time. Addressed to the King and the National Assembly. By M. de Peyssonnel, ancient Consul General of France, &c. &c.

MR. Peyssonnel judiciously observes, that empires, in the course of their existence, experience critical moments which, rightly improved, prepares to them a way to prosperity. Such a moment, he truly says, France now enjoys: blessed by nature with every physical advantage, France wants little to make her the happiest and most powerful monarchy in the world, but a civil constitution. Our author warmly exhorts the prince, and every class and order of people, to co-operate, at this favourable juncture, for the attainment of so good an end.

Mr. Peyssonnel lays it down as an immutable truth, that the rise and fall of empires depends on the perfection or imperfection of their constitution. A kingdom of such an extent as France has, he says, nothing to fear from interior disorders; but it is a notorious truth that certain impolitic maxims adopted about the middle of the present century, alliances with natural enemies, ill-conducted negotiations, and affected moderation, the veil under which ignorant ministers endeavour to conceal their weakness, these combined circumstances have humbled France, and exalted another power on her fall. Our author then proceeds to exhort his countrymen to

open their eyes to their political interests, and to take an active part, as their fore-fathers have done before them. He then describes the state of France from the peace of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, to the treaty of Versailles, in 1756. The peace, he contends, was as glorious and advantageous to France as the treaty was disadvantageous. The court of Vienna made a formal offer of its alliance to the court of Versailles. To this alliance Russia soon after acceded, that is, says Mr. Peyssonnel, she went hand in hand with Austria, in sharing the concessions of France, and concerting her ruin by the formation of an offensive league at her cost and expence, instead of a league which should have been merely defensive. Those powers were not content with laying the foundation of the destruction of the French power at sea, by diverting her resources into the channel of a German war, which would have rendered her formidable and, perhaps, successful against England, but they also attempted to ruin her in the Mediterranean and Turkey, by entangling her with the Ottoman empire, her ancient, powerful, and faithful ally.

Having examined the various articles of the subsequent treaties of Versailles, confirming and enlarging that of 1756, which he considers as the first step towards the decline of France, Mr. Peyssonnel declares that the pacification of 1763, which terminated the seven years war, and was the result of those treaties, was the most disadvantageous and dishonourable that France had made for many ages.

He then goes on to shew, that Austria has never since lost sight of her object; that she has exercised an influence and ascendancy over France almost magical, which has thrown her into a state of lethargy and enervation that

that has much reduced her in the scale of European powers. From hence our author proceeds to give an account of the alliance between Russia and Prussia, the death of Augustus, King of Poland, and the election of Stanislaus, the circumstances that led to the partition of Poland, the war between the Russians and Turks, the revolution of Sweden, and the pacification of Kainairdjik: by all these transactions, he proves how greatly France had fallen in her former dignity and consequence. The same conclusion he draws from a survey of the war on the succession to Bavaria, terminated by the peace of Teschen.

Fifteen years of profound peace, which passed between 1763 and 1778, would, says our author, have sufficed to repair the strength of France, exhausted by the seven years war, if she had not neglected to arm, when the other great powers were arming; if she had, with proper spirit, checked their movements, compelled them to disarm, and imposed on them that tranquillity which she wished to enjoy herself. But these fifteen years of absolute inactivity and total abuse of peace enervated her military power: sophistical arguments, artful insinuations, and vain promises, from the court of Vienna, plunged France into a state of stupefaction, in which, with a few exceptions, she has continued to this time.

Mr. Peyssonnel, having given an account of the peace of Teschen, which restored tranquillity to Germany, and restrained the ambition of the House of Bourbon, pronounces a most spirited and energetic eulogium on the late King of Prussia.

Some curious facts are mentioned by our author; among others, the following, on the credit of a letter from St. Ildefonso, dated September 1, 1780, that the court of Vienna had offered, on the part of England, to his Catholic majesty, the restitution of Gibraltar, if he would accede to a separate peace with England. The King of Spain replied, that he would not listen to any pro-

position for peace in which France was not included.

Our author having established his position, that the court of Vienna, ever since its alliance with that of Versailles, had plotted the degradation of France, proceeds to take a summary view of the state of Europe, and their situation and interests relative to France, in order to lay a foundation for a new political system, which may yield to the French that preponderance which has long been lost.

The first step Mr. Peyssonnel recommends is a strict adherence to the family compact between France and Spain, the advantages of which he endeavours to point out; he also proposes other alliances, and concludes, that England must sink under a national bankruptcy.

Having thus pursued Mr. Peyssonnel through this strange jumble of political incoherences, we must remark, that the idea of the House of Austria wishing to degrade France is too romantic to need confutation: Austria certainly has led France into some disagreeable situations, but that she had any other end in view than to gain a powerful assistance by no means appears. His wish to cement the family compact shews clearly from whence his zeal flows. Happily for France, this country, and Europe, the National Assembly is guided by more liberal, more enlarged motives, and her alliances in future will tend more to aggrandize her than any adherence to the family compact can possibly do.

LETTRE SUR LE CELEBAT DES PRETRES. Letters on the Celibacy of the Clergy, by a young Man, (M. Le Fevre de Meaux) whom that Regulation has caused to quit the Ecclesiastical Profession. Paris.

IT is easy to perceive, on a perusal of this work, that it is not the production of a man conversant in literature; but it is not less certain

that he has been inspired by pure motives and a profound respect for the Christian religion, and for the moral order of society. Should priests marry? or live in a state of celibacy? These are two very important questions which have been long agitated, and to little purpose; and it must be confessed that they are so delicate as to require a serious discussion. The author of this treatise is for the affirmative of the first question, and the manner in which he supports the arguments which have determined him, often appear to us conclusive: let us quickly run over them.

"Mythical ideas, among all nations, have been the first origin of the celibacy of the priests. These exalted spirits wished to distinguish the affections of the body from those of the soul: from hence arose that absolute neglect of self, that detachment from temporal concerns, those bodily punishments, those combats against the passions and against natural desires, which in the early ages of this enthusiasm have changed some of the weakest of mankind into the warmest fanatics. From hence they ran into that habitude of spirituality which has led both sexes so much astray and has deprived so large a portion of mankind of husbands, of wives, and children. Here we see how far it militates against true policy: morals were not at first affected; but it was not long before they were. Relaxation followed this fervor, hypocrisy succeeded to piety; the priests, in their communication with mankind, in exercising over them the empire of theocracy, participated in all their vices, in all their crimes, and mixing the exterior exercises of religion with secret libertine practices, afforded examples of the most scandalous immorality, and often of sacrilege. Let any one only trace the history of the Roman church, from Gregory VII. to our time, and he will be convinced that this picture is not overcharged.

"This scandalous conduct in the clergy has not always been pushed to the same degree of boldness and notoriety. As literature revived, they necessarily conducted the priests to politeness, and from being polite they grew more decent; but the morals of the clergy were not in reality amended; and those who have religiously adhered to their vows of chastity, have shewn themselves to be either the most cruel ministers of a God of mercy, or the most unhappy of the human race. Are these proper ministers of a Deity who principally wishes to be beloved? Did God place mankind on the earth to make them miserable; by giving them wants, passions, and enjoyments which they must not satisfy?

"When priests, in a state of celibacy, become only useless to society, they are still a great political evil, for society owes no protection to those who serve her ill, or do not serve her at all; but if we behold them, condemned at first, either by choice or duty to an irreproachable chastity, and yet freely communicating with society, in the midst of all those attractions which operate on mind and body, and in fact exposed to continual attacks from corporeal appetites, from opportunity, and from seductions: if they combat that natural inclination which draws them towards the fair-sex which are around them, whose ghostly directors they are, whom they are often with and alone, can they long resist those seducing charms? And if they do not resist, how can they satisfy themselves? Not surely by such dreadful seductions, and by making the fair participate in their incontinence. Thus, by this act, the ministers of religion, by the examples they give, injure religion and morality, which at first are corrupted and then lost: this is the common fruit of the celibacy of the clergy. If, by becoming priests, they could divest themselves of the passions of men, if they

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they could lose these faculties, these means, these natural desires, celibacy might be possible, but nature will not permit it."

The author supports almost all his observations by facts, which the clergy have endeavoured to hide from the knowledge of the people, but which have not the less been made public or proved. He cites, among others, the history of the curate in the neighbourhood of *Etampes*, who, to conceal the connection he had with his servant, hurried all the children he had by her in a garden; thus he passed his life in a violation of every thing which religion or human nature deem respectable, and ended his life on the wheel.

Our review would extend too far, if we were to follow our author through those chapters in which he examines, 1. The scandalous manners of the superior clergy, 2. How prejudicial the celibacy of the clergy is to the political happiness of society, 3. The advantages the abolition of this celibacy would have towards the public good, considered in a moral view. 4. The same, in a political view. There reigns, throughout these chapters, a solidity of reasoning very uncommon, a degree of

warmth, and, notwithstanding some incorrectness of style, some flows of eloquence, which prove the author is fired by his subject.

After having connected all his proofs by which his conclusion in favour of the celibacy of priests may be supported, the author declares that this must not be hastily effected; that the minds of men must not be alarmed by a hasty revolution, but must be prepared for it. He also adverts to the resistance which may be made to it by the Pope.

This pamphlet is preceded by an interesting preface, which contains some particulars of our author. He was designed for the church. At the age of twenty, his passions began to exert themselves, and the sight of woman warmed him: he bid adieu to shame, and was possessed with a desire to seduce those, whom he could not obtain in an honourable way. One of his companions had a favourite fair, and engaged him to write his letters for him. He was soon possessed with a passion for the same object, and endeavoured to attain her; but being discovered, he declined that profession which prevented him from acting either as a man, a husband, or a father.

BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

AN HISTORICAL DEVELOPEMENT OF THE PRESENT CONSTITUTION OF THE GERMANIC EMPIRE. By John Stephen Pütter. Translated from the German by Josiah Dornford, of Lincoln's-Inn, L.L.D. Vol. I.

THIS work, like many others which proceed from the German press, is a convincing proof that literature is making a rapid progress in that country; and we think Mr. Dornford could not have given a more acceptable present to his countrymen, than the translation of a book which exhibits to their view, the revolutions in the constitution of that

country from whence we are originally sprung.

The translator in his preface, tells us, that "the English are accused, upon the Continent, and perhaps with some degree of justice, of viewing the forms of government of other nations with contempt. Dazzled by the superior lustre of our own, we are blind to the real beauties of other constitutions, and remain wilfully ignorant of the political blessings enjoyed by surrounding nations, from an idea, that as they do not reach, or are beyond the happy medium of the English government, the unfortunate subjects must either be the sport

"of the caprice of tyrants; or a prey to the confusions of democracy." And we think that Mr. Dornford has fallen into the error of his countrymen, in ascribing that degree of excellence to the English constitution, which it by no means merits. We take notice of this, because we much fear the supineness of the people of this country, arising from a conviction that the constitution needs no amendment, may in the end furnish an opportunity to a bad minister effectually to destroy the little remains of liberty we still enjoy.

The first volume is divided into five books. The first treats of the Germanic constitution from the earliest times to the decline of the Carolingian race. The second contains the extinction of the Carolingian race, and the succession of the Saxon, Franconian, and Swabian Emperors to the year 1235. The third contains the latter Swabian Emperors, and succeeding Emperors, and Kings of different houses to 1493. The fourth the Emperor Maximilian to 1519. And the fifth the accession of Charles to 1558.

This work contains much real information; the first sources of the present constitution of Germany are thus described.

That Germany, with respect to the origin of its first inhabitants, is to be divided into two different sorts of countries; the one, the inhabitants of which were not originally of German, but of Venedic extraction; as Mecklenburg, Pomerania, Wagria, Lauenburg, Brandenburg, Misnia, Lusatia, Bohemia, Moravia, and since the seventh century, Stiria, Carinthia, and Carniola:—the other sort of countries are such, whose inhabitants were

originally Germans, as Lower Saxony, Franconia, Swabia, and the greatest part of Westphalia. This interior part of original Germany has this advantage over almost all the other countries of Europe; that no foreign nation has been able firmly to establish itself there for any length of time. The Romans could never establish their dominion on this side of the Rhine and Danube; nor have any other nations, though the country has been traversed by multitudes, who have all left traces behind them of their devastations, ever been able to make their conquests permanent.*

Though the Venedic countries are at present, the greatest part of them at least, so much on the German footing, that except in Bohemia and Lusatia, the Venedic language has been under the necessity of yielding to the German; yet there are traces sufficient left, both in the manners of the people, and in the constitution of the country, of their original distinction from other parts of Germany. In particular, it may be asserted upon good grounds, that from the time of the fifth century every land had its own Lord, its Prince, or King; and was reduced in succeeding years to acknowledge the supremacy of the Germanic empire, and its common head. So far therefore we may derive the first foundation of the present constitution from those times; as Mecklenburg, Pomerania, Misnia, Brandenburg, &c. were originally distinct countries, each of which had its own particular Regent, though afterwards made subject to the Empire.

With regard to these original Germanic nations, it is probable, that in the time of war they united against a common enemy, and followed a general leader, who commanded them in the capacity of Duke, Heertog†, leader of the army; or as Prince, Fürst, that is der Vorderste, der Erste, as it is still in English, the First; and in Dutch, de Voorst; or else under the title of King; and as soon as the war was at an end, this command ceased. In the time of peace, every tribe or canton‡ which inhabited a district of one or more quadrate

* On this subject Mons. de Hartberg the Prussian Minister's Treatise on the Superiority of the Germans over the Romans, is well worthy of perusal. Leipzig, 1780: p. 23.

† Heer, in the German language, signifies a Host or Army; and zog, or, in low German, zog, the perfect of the verb ziehen, the same as the Latin ducere; from whence the word Hertzog, or Heertog, a Duke.

‡ The German word gau, here used, is called in Latin pagus, and signifies a tribe or canton, a subdivision of a province. In England, probably a hundred. Tac. de Mor. Ger. c. 12. Stewart's Antiquities of the English Constitution, p. 229.

According to Tacitus, each pagus furnished a hundred warriors for the service of the community. "Definitur et numerus: centeni ex singulis pagis sunt; idque ipsi inter suos vocantur, et quod primo numerus fuit jam nomen et honor est." Tac. de Mor. Ger. c. 6.

miles, and was divided from the others by some determined boundary, either of mountains, rivers, or the horizon, where several free families lived in connexion together, became again totally independent. Even single tribes or cantons could engage with each other in war; and in that case they chose their own particular commanders.

Thus the Franks formed one principal Germanic people, though the Salii, Ripuarii, Cenomanni, and Morini, were different tribes of them. In the time of peace likewise each tribe could elect its own particular judge. For this office they generally made choice of a man of years and experience; who, to use a modern expression, was grown grey in business, and was usually called *grau**, grave, gravio; from whence is derived the word Graf, a Count.

From hence we might be led to imagine, that our titles of Duke, Prince, and Count, in the interior parts of Germany, derive their origin from the first centuries, as certainly the first etymological derivation of the words may be traced from a very early period; but this matter, and particularly the idea which we at present connect with the title of Dukes, Princes, and Counts, as actual sovereigns, will explain itself at a much later period.

The origin of Feuds is clearly and fully detailed.

As the Germanic nations were formerly accustomed to divide the countries which they conquered, or else distribute them by lot amongst those whose bravery had helped to acquire them, yet the possession of such estates was connected with a further obligation to serve in a national war; so we may suppose that Clovis and his successors distributed a number of lands and estates, which had fallen to their share in the division of the conquests, amongst brave and respectable men, on the express condition that they should not only serve in the wars of the nation, but defend the person of their king with particular fidelity. Such grants as these indeed were not yet hereditary, but only for life, and liable to be resumed, and afterwards underwent a variety of changes and new regulations. They certainly however laid the foundation of the custom of certain members of the nation holding their estates of the King, upon condition of being more im-

mediately attached to him as his people, liege men, or vassals; whilst other estates, on the contrary, were free, or, as they are termed, allodial property.

After the conversion of Clovis, not only the Bishopricks which were formerly established were revived, but such Bishops as were able to read and write, soon became indispensable for the transaction of the business of the Court and nation; and for this reason they were appointed Chaplains at the Court, and even Referendaries and Chancellors.

Only such as were properly denominated Court offices were reserved for the Laity; as King's Marshal, to superintend the horses; Chamberlain, to inspect the wardrobe and its appurtenances; Steward, with the care of the kitchen; Butler, to look after the cellars; Master of the Hunt, &c. When any of these were men of experience, and appeared to deserve the royal confidence, it is probable that the King called for their advice; and so far it might be said that the Frankish Kings employed the officers of their Court, as the Steward, Chamberlain, &c. in the concerns of the empire, or affairs of State; and that the Grand Steward of the Household, or Majordomo, represented what we now call a Minister of State.

In those early times, as well as throughout the middle ages, the Court was not stationary, but wandered, almost annually, from one part of the country to another. The greatest part of the time the Kings retired to their own domains or villas, where the conveniences for hunting and fishing, as well as riding, swimming, and other exercises, rendered their abode agreeable. On the principal holidays, such as Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, or days that were set apart for particular solemnities, they returned to the cities, where they attended the ceremonies of religious worship, and kept their public Court days, or *Galas*. On such occasions as these, the most eminent persons, both spiritual and secular, of the whole empire, or at least from the adjacent country, thought it an honour to wait upon their King, and pay their court to him. On this account we seldom find the royal deeds executed, for any length of time, in one particular place; but sometimes in one, and sometimes another part of the kingdom. This however did not prevent any particular city from being considered as the capital of the Empire, or of any particular part of it, according to the

* The German word for grey; from whence probably the French and English words grave.

+ Albericus Monarchus. trium Fontium, ad an. 696.

divisions which were then made. Thus Clovis had already made Paris his capital; and some time afterwards Metz appears as the capital of Austrasia. Other divisions which the kings made were called after Orleans, Soissons, or other towns, which were distinguished by being made their chief places of residence.

Clovis, in the year 511, which was the last of his life, summoned the Frankish bishops to a council at Orleans; a custom which was afterwards often repeated. There is as little doubt likewise that the Kings of the Franks occasionally consulted the dukes, counts, and other nobility, in the affairs of the empire. Very early traces are to be met with, of a sort of national assembly being held at the beginning of each year; but our ideas of these must not by any means be formed from the diets, and limited power of the Emperor, with respect to the States at present. A nation that was free, and only disposed to war, as that of which the Frankish kings were sovereigns, could not be despotically dealt with. Policy itself would naturally point out the necessity of consulting the most distinguished persons in matters of importance; although it could not be considered as absolutely necessary for the king to have the consent of the States, and that without this consent he had not the privilege of acting in the affairs of government according to his own pleasure.

One of the most important questions with respect to the original political constitution of the Franks, related to the succession to the throne. It might naturally be expected, from the nature of a kingdom established by the sword, that the first conqueror who had any sons would render the throne hereditary. The sequel informs us that several brothers divided the empire amongst each other. There seems at that time to have been no idea of the indivisibility of a State, or of the succession to a throne according to the right of primogeniture, usually connected with it. And the re-union of the monarchy which occasionally happened after such frequent partitions, could only be attributed to deaths with default of issue.

Our limits will not permit us to follow this author through his various interesting points of history, we shall,

therefore, conclude our extracts from this volume with an account of the rise of the Jesuits.

The supports which had hitherto sustained the Papal chair, afforded by monachism, and by the mendicant orders in particular, were now become tottering and ruinous. Since the world was become more enlightened by the invention of printing, and restoration of ancient literature, and since Luther had proclaimed the truth aloud, and written with such energy and perspicuity, the ignorant monks had lost the high respect they had formerly been held in, and were become the objects of ridicule: but a new order arose now, of a species quite the reverse of the former ones; a society of men, of choice abilities,* who were free from the restraint imposed upon the cloistered monks, which answered no purpose of utility. They had no regular hours set apart, either in the day or night, for the indispensable performance of devotion, but applied themselves to a more active life, by undertaking the instruction of youth, preaching, and hearing confessions, diffusing religion among infidels, and endeavouring to prevent further separations from the church of Rome. Their internal constitution likewise, in some respects, differed widely from the institutions of other orders. The form of government they adopted was that of absolute monarchy, and the strictest subjection to their general, and the provincials, and other superiors, who were dependent upon him. The See of Rome at first made some scruple of confirming the order; and they might well have had reason to dread that such an order as this might in time rise even superior to the power of the Pope. In the year 1540, the order first procured a grant only for the number of sixty persons, but, at last, on the 14th of March, 1543, they were allowed an unlimited establishment. The number of this society of Jesus, or Jesuits, as they called themselves, before the close of the sixteenth century, increased to ten, and afterwards to upwards of twenty thousand, and spread themselves throughout the Catholic States in every quarter of the world,† They undertook every where the education of youth, without any pecuniary

* The original founder of the order, it is well known, was Ignatius de Loyola, a Spanish nobleman, who at first associated with eight men of different nations, viz. Peter Faber, James Laynez, Claudius Jajus, Paschasius Broet, Francis Xavier, Alphonsus Salmeron, Simon Roderick, John Coduri, and Nicholas de Bobadilla.

† A book which was written in honour of the jubilee at the conclusion of the first century after the foundation of the society, under the title of *Imago primi seculi Societatis Jesu a Provincia Flandro-Belgica ejusdem Societatis representata*, printed at Antwerp in 1640, contains, p. 237, 248; a complete list of the number of provinces which

uniary reward. Their manner of teaching was entirely new; though it was more mechanical and superficial than with genuine taste or tendency to real improvement, yet their pupils were enabled to appear, and even imagine themselves, really possessed of knowledge. What method could be adopted, more eligible than this, to procure them universal access in every place they came to?

We shall review the second volume of this work in a subsequent number.

JOURNAL OF A VOYAGE TO NEW SOUTH WALES. By John White, Esq. Surgeon General to the Settlement.

AFTER the narratives of Captain Tench and Governor Phillip, little can be expected that is new respecting this voyage or the new settlement. Indeed the book now before us seems rather designed to convey to the public an account of the curious objects in natural history which have

been found in that region. Accordingly we have no less than sixty-five plates of birds, fishes, insects, &c. which are curiously engraved, and form a valuable present to the naturalist. We shall therefore only give a few extracts from such facts as we think will be entertaining.

In Mr. White's account of the island of Teneriffe, he gives the following specimen of the fanaticism which still reigns in that island,

"Like the inhabitants of most catholic countries, the people of this island are very profuse in decorating their churches, and even their dwelling-houses, on the festivals held in honour of their saints. This being *Corpus Christi*, a day of much solemnity and parade, I went on shore to see the procession incident to the occasion. Before we landed, we formed a resolution to avoid, as much as lay in our power, giving offence even to the most zealous devotee. But we

which were already in Italy, Spain, France, Germany, and Turkey; in Goa, Malabar, the Philippine Islands, China, and Japan, in the East Indies; in Mexico, Peru, Chili, Paraguay, Brasil, and Canada, in America; where the whole order of the Jesuits had dispersed itself, with the number of professed houses, colleges, seminaries, houses of probation, residencies, and missions, which the order was in possession of in the year 1626. Germany was divided into five provinces; the Upper and Lower Rhine, Upper Germany, Austria, and Bohemia. The Netherlands, likewise, were divided into two provinces, by the names of the Flanders and French Netherlands. The History of the Jesuits in the province of Upper Germany, forms a complete work of itself, under the title of *Ign. Agricola, S. I. Historia Provincia Societatis Jesu Germaniae Superioris, quinque primas annorum complexa decades*, Aug. Vind. 1727, 1728, in two folio volumes. Both these works discover a variety of things, both in the history and spirit of the order, which may occasion still further reflection. A few short extracts from them, with remarks, occur in "The Letters of a Layman, on the Weeds" scattered during the period of the duration of the Jesuits," published at Frankfort and Leipzig, 1785. "Very early traces occur of the influence which the Jesuits had in the affairs of Germany. In the year 1540, when a religious conference was to be held at Worms, Peter Faber, a Jesuit, was deputed as private agent from the Pope, to negotiate with the Imperial agent, Peter Ortiz. When the Pope sent Cardinal Moronusto the Emperor, he sent two Jesuits, Jajus and Bobadilla, with him. The latter was well received at the courts of Inspruck and Vienna. In the year 1541, Faber was sent a second time to Germany, where he had frequent interviews with the Bishops of Spire and Worms, and particularly with the Elector of Mentz. Here he gained over to his interest, among others, Peter Canisius, in the year 1542, who afterwards made a very conspicuous figure as the first Provincial of the Jesuits in Germany, and whose catechism was introduced in the year 1555, in preference to all others in the Emperor's hereditary dominions, and afterwards throughout all the Catholic part of Germany. The first places where Jesuitical colleges were allowed in Germany, and therefore where they were first firmly established, were, Vienna, in 1552; Prague, 1555; Ingolstadt, Louvaine, and Antwerp, 1556; Munich, 1559; Mentz, 1560; Dillingen, 1563; Würzburg, 1567; Fulder and Spire, in 1571; Heilighstadt, in 1574, &c. Ignatius, the founder, and first General of the Order, lived till the year 1556. His successor, James Lalez, first gave the Order its proper consistency, and very much improved its regulations."

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found this was not to be done. When we arrived at the church, from whence the procession commenced, the host was just making its appearance; a circumstance that is announced by ringing of bells, and firing of guns. As it passed by us we fell on our knees, as we observed those around us do; but it unfortunately happening that the spot we knelt upon consisted of sand intermixed with small rough pebbles, the posture we were in soon became so exceedingly painful, that, in order to procure a momentary ease, we only let one knee remain on the ground. This heretical act did not escape the observation of one of the holy fathers, all of whom were intent on the exact performance of every ceremonious etiquette. It procured for us a frown from him, and treatment that was not of the most civil kind; so that, in order to pacify him, we again dropped on both knees. He did not, however, pass on, without exhibiting strong marks of ill-nature and resentment in his countenance, at this trivial and unintended breach of respectful attention to the religious rites of the country. The procession, in which the governor and all the principal inhabitants joined, having passed through most of the streets, returned, with the same solemnity, to the church it had set out from; which was richly ornamented, and splendidly illuminated with large wax tapers, upon the occasion."

To shew the ingenuity employed by the unhappy convicts, and how steadily they pursue their illegal occupations, the following anecdote will suffice.

"This morning a boat came along-side, in which were three Portuguese, and six slaves; from whom we purchased some oranges, plantains, and bread. In trafficking with these people, we discovered that a convict had, with great ingenuity and address, passed some quarter dollars which he, assisted by two

others, had coined out of old buckles, buttons belonging to the marines, and pewter spoons, during their passage from Teneriffe. The impression, milling, character, in a word, the whole was so inimitably executed, that had their metal been a little better the fraud; I am convinced, would have passed undetected. A strict, careful search was made for the apparatus wherewith this was done, but in vain; not the smallest trace or vestige of any thing of the kind was to be found among them. How they managed this business without discovery, or how they could effect it at all, is a matter of inexpressible surprize to me, as they never were suffered to come near a fire; and a centinel was constantly placed over their hutchway, which, one would imagine, rendered it impossible for either fire or fused metal to be conveyed into their apartments: besides, hardly ten minutes ever elapsed without an officer of some degree or other going down among them. The adroitness, therefore, with which they must have managed, in order to complete a business that required so complicated a process, gave me a high opinion of their ingenuity, cunning, caution, and address; and I could not help wishing that these qualities had been employed to more laudable purposes. The officers of marines, the master of the ship, and myself, fully explained to the injured Portuguese what villains they were who had imposed upon them. We were not without apprehensions that they might entertain an unfavourable opinion of Englishmen in general, from the conduct of these rascals."

The following account given of Rio de Janeiro contains something new, and different from former voyages.

"Rio de Janeiro is said to derive its name from being discovered on St. Januarius's day. It is the capital

tal of the Portuguese settlements in South America, and is situated on the west side of a river, or bay. Except that part which fronts the water, the city is surrounded by high mountains, of the most romantic form the imagination can fashion to itself any idea. The houses are commonly two, and sometimes three stories high, of which, even though inhabited by the most wealthy and respectable families, the lower part is always appropriated to shops, and to the use of the servants and slaves, (who are here extremely numerous) the family rather chusing to reside in the upper part, that they might live in a less confined air. To every house there is a balcony, with lattice-work before it; and the same before all the windows.

"The churches are very numerous, elegant, and richly decorated; some of them are built and ornamented in a modern stile, and that in a manner which proclaims the genius, taste, and judgment of the architects and artists. Two or three of the hand-somest are at this time unfinished, or repairing; and they appear to go on but very slowly, notwithstanding large sums are constantly collecting for their completion. As they are erected, or repaired, by charitable contributions, public processions are frequently made for that purpose; and the mendicant friars, belonging to them, likewise exert themselves in their line. At these processions, which are not unfrequent, persons of every age and description assist. They usually take place after it is dark, when those who are joined in it are dressed in a kind of cloak, adapted to religious purposes, and carry a lanthorn, fixed at the end of a pole of a convenient length; so that, upon these occasions, you sometimes see three or four hundred moving lights in the streets at the same time, which has an uncommon and a pleasing effect. Considerable sums are collected by this mode. At the corner of every street, about ten feet from the ground, is placed the

image of a saint, which is the object of the common people's adoration.

"The town is well supplied with water from the neighbouring mountains, which is conveyed over a deep valley by an aqueduct formed of arches, of a stupendous height. The principal fountain is close to the sea, in a kind of square near the palace, where ships water at a good wharf, nearly in the same manner as at Teneriffe, and with equal expedition and convenience. On the opposite side of the fountain are cocks, from which the people in the neighbourhood are supplied. This convenient and capital watering-place is so near the palace that, when disputes or contentions arise between the boats crews of different ships, the slaves, &c. they are suppressed and adjusted by the soldiers on guard; who, in the Portuguese service, have great power, and often treat the people with no little severity.

"While we staid at this place, we made several short excursions into the country, but did not go near the mines, as we knew the attempt would not only prove hazardous, but ineffectual.

"From its complicated state, I could learn but few particulars relative to the government of Brazil. The viceroy is invested with great power and authority, subject, in some cases, to an appeal to the court of Lisbon; but, like a wise and prudent ruler, he seldom exerts it, unless in instances where sound judgment and true policy render it expedient and necessary. He is a man of little parade, and appears not to be very fond of pomp and grandeur, except on public days, when it is not to be dispensed with. When he goes abroad, for amusement, or to take the air, his guard consists of only seven dragons; but on public occasions, he makes his appearance in a grander stile. I once saw him go in state to one of the courts of justice; and, though it was situated not a hundred yards from his palace, he was attended by a troop of horse. His state

carriage is tolerably neat, but by no means elegant or superb; it was drawn by four horses, irregularly mottled.

"Carriages are pretty common at this place; there is scarcely a family of respectability without one. They are mostly of the chaise kind, and drawn in general by mules, which are found to answer better than horses, being more indefatigable and sure-footed, consequently better calculated to ascend their steep hills and mountains.

"The military force of Brazil consists of a troop of horse, which serve as guards for the viceroy, twelve regiments of regulars from Europe, and six raised in the country: these last enlist men of a mixed colour, which the former are by no means suffered to do. Besides the foregoing, there are twelve regiments of militia always embodied. This whole force, regulars and militia, except them on outposts and other needful duties, appear early in the morning, on every first day of the month, before the palace, where they undergo a general muster, and review of arms and necessities. The private men, although they are considered as persons of great consequence by the populace, are, on the other hand, equally submissive and obedient to their officers. This strict discipline and regularity, as the city is in a great measure under military orders, renders the inhabitants extremely civil and polite to the officers, who, in return, study to be on the most agreeable and happy terms with them. A captain's guard (independent of the cavalry, who are always in readiness to attend the viceroy) is mounted every day at the palace.

"On both sides of the river which forms the bay, or harbour, the country is picturesque and beautiful to a degree, abounding with the most luxuriant flowers and aromatic shrubs. Birds of a lovely and rich plumage are seen hopping from tree to tree in great numbers, together with an endless variety of insects, whose exquisite beauty and gaudy colours exceed all description. There is little appear-

ance of cultivation in the parts we visited; the land seemed chiefly pasture. The cattle here are small, and when killed do not produce such beef as is to be met with in England; it is not, however, by any means so bad as represented by some travellers to be; on the contrary, I have seen and eat here tolerably good, sweet, and well-tasted beef. I never saw any mutton: they have, indeed, a few sheep, but they are small, thin, and lean. The gardens furnish most sorts of European productions, such as cabbages, lettings, parsley, leeks, white radishes, beans, peas, kidney-beans, turnips, water-melons, excellent pumpkins, and pine-apples, of a small and indifferent kind. The country likewise produces, in the most unbounded degree, limes, acid and sweet, lemons, oranges, of an immense size and exquisite flavour, plantains, bananas, yams, cocoa-nuts, cashoo, apples and nuts, and some mangos. For the use of the slaves and poorer sort of people, the capado is cultivated in great plenty; but this cannot be done through a want of corn for bread, as I never saw finer flour than at this place, which is plentiful, and remarkably cheap.

"The riches of this country, arising from the mines, are certainly very great: to go near, or to get a sight of these inexhaustible treasures, is impossible, as every pass leading to them is strongly guarded, and even a person taken on the road, unless he can give a clear and unequivocal account of himself and his business, is imprisoned, and perhaps compelled ever after to work in those subterraneous cavities which avarice, or an ill-timed and fatal curiosity, may have prompted him to approach.

"In addition to the above source of wealth, the country produces excellent tobacco, and likewise sugar canes, from which the inhabitants make good sugar, and draw a spirit called *aquadente*. This spirit, by proper management, and being kept till it is a proper age, becomes tolerable rum. As it is sold very cheap,

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the commodore purchased a hundred pipes of it, for the use of the garrison, when arrived at New South Wales. Precious and valuable stones are also found here: indeed they are so very plenty that a certain quantity only is suffered to be collected annually. At the jewellers and lapidaries, of which occupation there are many in Rio, I saw some valuable diamonds, and a great number of excellent topazes, with many other sorts of stones of inferior value. Several topazes were purchased by myself and others, but we chose to buy them wrought, in order to avoid imposition, which is not unfrequent when the stones are sold in a rough state. One of the principal streets of this city is nearly occupied by jewellers and workers of these stones; and I observed that persons of a similar profession generally resided in the same street.

"The manufactures here are very few, and those by no means extensive. All kinds of European goods sell at an immoderate price, notwithstanding the shops are well stored with them.

"The Brazil, or native Indians, are very adroit at making elegant cotton hammocks, of various dyes and forms. It was formerly the custom of the principal people of Rio to be carried about in these hammocks, but that fashion is succeeded by the use of the sedan chairs, which are now very common among them, but they are of a more clumsy form than those used in England. The chair is suspended from an awkward piece of wood, borne on the shoulders of two slaves, and elevated sufficiently to be clear of the inequalities of the street. In carrying, the foremost slave takes the pavement, and the other the street, one keeping a little before the other; so that the chair is moved forward in a side-long direction, and very unlike the procedure of the London chairmen. These fellows, who get on at a great rate, never take the wall of the foot passengers, nor inconvenience them in the smallest degree.

"The inhabitants in general are a pleasant, cheerful people, inclining

more to corpulency than those of Portugal; and, as far as we could judge, very favourably inclined to the English. The men are strait and well-proportioned. They do not accustom themselves to high living, nor indulge much in the juice of the grape.

"The women, when young, are remarkably thin, pale, and delicately shaped; but after marriage they generally incline to be lumpy, without losing that constitutional pale, or rather fallow appearance. They have regular and better teeth than are usually observable in warm climates, where sweet productions are plentiful. They have likewise the most lovely, piercing, dark eyes; in the captivating use of which they are by no means unskilled. Upon the whole, the women of this country are very engaging; and rendered more so by their free, easy, and unrestrained manner. Both sexes are extremely fond of suffering their hair, which is black, to grow to a prodigious length. The ladies wear it plaited, and tied up in a kind of club, or large lump; a mode of hair-dressing that does not seem to correspond with their delicate and feminine appearance. Custom, however, reconciles us to the most *outré* fashions, and what we thought unbecoming, the Portuguese considered as highly ornamental. I was one day at a gentleman's house, to whom I expressed my wonder at the prodigious quantity of hair worn by the ladies; adding, that I did not conceive it possible for it to be all of their own growth. The gentleman assured me that it was; and, in order to convince me that it was so, he called his wife, and untied her hair, which, notwithstanding it was in plaits, dragged at least two inches upon the floor as she walked along. I offered my service to tie it up again, which was politely accepted, and considered as a compliment by both. It has been said that the Portuguese are jealous people; a disposition I never could perceive among any of those with whom I had the pleasure of

forming an acquaintance; on the contrary, they seemed sensible of, and pleased with, every kind of attention paid to their wives or daughters."

Of the natural history we shall not say any thing at present, it being our intention to present our readers with one or two plates of the most curious subjects.

TRAVELS TO DISCOVER THE SOURCES OF THE NILE. By James Bruce, of Kinnaird, Esq. F.R.S. 5 Vols. 4to. Robinsons,

[Continued from Page 56.]

LEAVING Syene, Mr. Bruce went to the cataracts, which exhibited nothing very singular, and prepared to descend the Nile again. Nothing particular occurred in his return down to Badjouva. From whence, he went to a place called Kennè, where he joined a caravan for Cossèir in the Red Sea, and arrived there safe. From hence he went to view a place called the Mountains of Emeralds; but although Mr. Bruce found some green chrystal, called smaragdus, yet he saw no real emeralds.

At Cossèir, our traveller procured a vessel to proceed to the bottom of the Gulph, and round it to Jidda, the port of Mecca; a large and convenient port, where a very extensive trade is carried on in a very singular way.

Nine ships were there from India, some of them worth £,200,000. One merchant, a Turk, living at Mecca, a place no Christian dare approach, offered to purchase the cargo of four out of the nine; another of the same cast comes, and says, he will not buy any unless he has them all. The samples are shewn, and the cargoes of the whole nine ships are carried into the wildest parts of Arabia. Two India brokers also appear and settle the price; one on the part of the seller, the other on the part of the buyer, the Turk. These men are neither

Mahometans or Christians, but have credit with them both; they sit down on a carpet and take an Indian shawl, which they carry on their shoulders, like a napkin, and spread it over their hands; they talk of indifferent subjects as if they were not employed on any serious business; after about twenty minutes handling each other below the shawl, the bargain is concluded for nine ships, without a word being spoken, or pen and ink being used; and Mr. Bruce observes, there never was an instance of a dispute happening in these sales.

But confidence is carried still further, and the money is to be paid, A private Moor who has nothing to support him but his character, becomes responsible for these sales. The man who did this when Mr. Bruce was at Jidda, was called Ibrahim Serass, or Ibrahim the Broker. This man delivers a number of coarse hempen bags, full of what is supposed to be money; he marks the contents upon the bags, and puts his seal upon the strings which tie the mouths of them; this is received for what is marked upon it without any one having opened the bags, and in India they are current for the value marked on the bags.

At Jidda Mr. Bruce met with many English, and received great civilities from them; he left that place, and proceeded to some other ports on the Red Sea, and on the 19th of September reached Massuah, an island, from whence he was to procure an entrance into Abyssinia.

Having conducted his readers thus far, Mr. Bruce proceeds to give a history of Abyssinia; he takes it up from the first peopling, and inserts some conjectures concerning the origin of the language. This history takes up the remainder of the first, and the whole of the second volume. We cannot think it has any thing so very interesting in it, as to employ more than a quarto volume; and besides it is introduced in a manner that much interrupts the narrative. Some accounts of the different nations the Abyssinians

Abyssinians had to deal with, are interperfed. From these we have already given some extracts.

Being arrived at Massuah, a small island on the Abyssinian shore, he received a message from Mahomet Geberti, by a person who was to conduct him on shore, where he had an audience of Achmet, the Naybe's nephew, who provided him a house, sent him a dinner, and had his baggage and instruments unpacked. The next day the Naybe, or Prince, arrived, attended by about forty naked savages, and was himself as great a savage as any of them, being cruel to excess, avaricious, and a great drunkard.

Mr. Bruce presented his credentials, and gave him, as usual, a present, but saw the Naybe did not seem to take any account either of his letter or himself. A dreadful mortality reigned in the island, occasioned by the small-pox. Our traveller, however, suppressed his character of physician. The vessel that brought him having failed, the Naybe sent to demand a present, which Mr. Bruce refused, and the Naybe threatened to send him in chains to Constantinople. Fortunately, however, a messenger arrived from the King of Abyssinia, who was ill, directing the Naybe to send the physician (Mr. Bruce) to him immediately. This man, however, invented many stratagems to keep him, or rather to extort money from him for leave to go. At last he departed for Gondar, the capital of Abyssinia. On his journey, he was met by Achmet, the Naybe's nephew, who informed him of his uncle's treachery, advised him to take another road, though much the worst, and assured him of his friendship.

In this road, they had to ascend many hills and eminences which serve as the roots of the great mountain Tarants, and it was with the greatest difficulty they could get the baggage and Mr. Bruce's large instruments up one of them; they had not only these difficulties to struggle with, but were in danger from the deceitful charac-

ter of the inhabitants. Of this we may judge from the following story.

The town of Dixan consists of Moors and Christians, and is very well peopled; yet the only trade of either of these sects is a very extraordinary one, that of selling of children. The Christians bring such as they have stolen in Abyssinia to Dixan, as to a sure deposit, and the Moors receive them there, and carry them to a certain market at Massuah, whence they are sent over to Arabia, or India. The priests of the province of Tigré, especially those near the rock Damo, are openly concerned in this infamous practice; and some of these have been licensed by Michael, to carry it on as a fair trade, upon paying so many firelocks for each dozen or score of slaves.

Nothing can elucidate the footing upon which this trade stands better than a transaction which happened while Mr. Bruce was in Ethiopia, and which reached Gondar, by way of complaint from Massuah, and was told him by Michael himself.

Two priests of Tigré, whose names Mr. Bruce has forgotten, had been long intimate friends. They dwelt near the rock Damo. The youngest was married, and had two children, both sons; the other was old, and had none. The old one reproved his friend one day for keeping his children at home idle, and not putting them to some profession, by which they might gain their bread. The married priest pleaded his poverty and his want of relations that could assist him; on which, the old priest offered to place his eldest son with a rich friend of his own, who had no children, and where he should want for nothing. The proposal was accepted, and the young lad, about ten years of age, was delivered by his father to the old priest, to carry him to his friend, who sent the boy to Dixan, and sold him there. Upon the old priest's return, after giving the father a splendid account of his son's reception, treatment, and prospects, he gave him a piece of cotton cloth,

as a present from his son's patron. The younger child, about eight years old, hearing the good fortune of his elder brother, became so importunate to be allowed to go and visit him that the parents were obliged to humour him, and consent. But the old priest had a scruple, saying, he would not take the charge of so young a boy unless his mother went with him. This being settled, the old priest conveyed them to the market at Dixan, where he sold both the mother and the remaining child. Returning to the father, the old priest told him that his wife would stay only so long, and expected he would then fetch her upon a certain day, which was named. The day being come, the two priests went together to see this happy family; and, upon their entering Dixan, it was found that the old priest had sold the young one, but not to the same Moor to whom he had sold his family. Soon after, these two Moors who had bought the Christians, becoming partners in the venture, the old priest was to receive forty cotton cloths, that is, 101. sterling, for the husband, wife, and children.

The payment of the money, perhaps the resentment of the family trepanned, and the appearance of equity which the thing itself bore, suggested to the Moorish merchants that there was some more profit, and not more risk, if they carried off the old priest likewise: but as he had come to Dixan, as it were, under public faith, in a trade that greatly interested the town, they were afraid to attempt any thing against him whilst there: they began then, as it were, to repent of their bargain, from a pretended apprehension that they might be stopped and questioned, at going out of town, unless he would accompany them to some small distance, in consideration of which, they would give him, at parting, two pieces of cloth, to be added to the other forty, which he was to take back to Tigré with him, upon his return. The beginning of such expeditions is in the night. When all were asleep, they set out from Dixan, the buyers, the

sellers, and the family fold; and, being arrived near the mountain where the way turns off to the desert, the whole party fell upon the priest, threw him down, and bound him. The woman insisted that she might be allowed to cut, or tear off the little beard he had, in order, as she said, to make him look younger; and this demand was reckoned too just to be denied her. The whole five were then carried to Massuah: the woman, and her two children, were sold to Arabia; the two priests had not so ready a market, and they were both in the Naybe's house when Mr. Bruce was at Massuah, though he did not then know it.

The Naybe, willing to ingratiate himself with Ras Michael, at a small expence, wrote to him an account of the transaction, and offered, as they were priests, to restore them to him. But the Ras returned for answer, that the Naybe should keep them to be his chaplains; as he hoped, some day he would be converted to the Christian faith himself; if not, he might send them to Arabia with the rest; they would serve to be carriers of wood, and drawers of water; and that there still remained at Damo enough of their kind to carry on the trade with Dixan and Massuah.

This story Mr. Bruce heard from Ras Michael himself, at his granddaughter's marriage, when he was feasting, and in great spirits. He, and all the company, laughed heartily, and although there were in the room at least two dozen of priests, none of them seemed to take this incident more seriously than the rest of the company.

[To be continued.]

ESSAYS ON THE NATURE AND PRINCIPLES OF TASTE. By the Rev. Archibald Alison, LL. B. F. R. S. Edin. Robinsons: 1790.

THE SENSE OF TASTE bears the same relation to EMOTION, that the sense of Sight bears to KNOWLEDGE. The Greek words expressive of sight and of science are of the same

same derivation. The sense of sight, so various in its information, so lively in its impression, and that so far transcends the nature of the other senses, furnishes a metaphor that is extended to all the other inlets of sensation, which it tinges in some degree with its own colours, and clothes, as it were, in its own livery. The various objects of *feeling, smelling, tasting, hearing*, when they are made subjects of reflection, are seen under some confused adumbration of a visible form. The principal energy of the mind, accustomed to run in the channel of sight, draws the objects of the other senses into its vortex, and like a predominant chemical quality, transmuting inferior qualities into its own nature.

In like manner, in reflecting and comparing various subjects of emotion, we consider them as objects of taste. We speak of taste in dress, furniture, equipage, building, and all the fine arts. The sense of *tasting*, it would seem, predominates as much over the other senses, considered in relation to emotion and passion, as sight predominates over the other senses, when viewed as sources of information: so true is that humiliating observation of Dr. Johnson's, recorded by Hester Lynche Piozzi, that a man seldom thinks more intensely on any subject than on his dinner. The power of eating and drinking is in reality wonderfully great, and seems to be necessary not only to the preservation of individuals but to the very existence of society. There is no doing any business, or agreeing in any resolution, without eating and drinking together. This harmonizes the minds of men, and renders them social and tractable. The influence of taste, not metaphorical, but real, original, and gross taste in the history of civil society, is, perhaps, yet a desideratum in literature.

It is not a little mortifying to human vanity, that the finest speculations on the *beautiful and sublime* should

center in a metaphor taken from the mouth. However, this, in fact, is the metaphor that general consent has appropriated to that subject: and Mr. Alison is perfectly justifiable in its acceptance. As this gentleman has treated the nature and principles of *mental** taste with considerable invention, and with uncommon precision, we shall present a pretty plentiful, and we trust, no unpalatable dish of it to our metaphysical readers.

Mr. Alison's essays are inscribed, in testimony of the respect and gratitude of the author, to Mr. Pultney. In an introduction, he defines taste, and shows its importance to a state as well as to individuals. The qualities that produce the emotions of *SUBLIMITY* and *BEAUTY*, or, in general, the emotion of taste, "are not the objects of immediate observation; and, in the attempt to investigate them," he says, "various circumstances unite to perplex our research. They are often obscured under the name of qualities, with which they are accidentally combined: they result often from peculiar combinations of the qualities of objects, or the relations of certain parts of objects to each other: they are still oftener, perhaps, dependent upon the state of our own minds, and vary in their effects with the dispositions in which they happen to be observed. In all cases, while we feel the emotions they excite, we are ignorant of the causes by which they are produced; and when we seek to discover them, we have no other method of discovery than that varied and patient experiment, by which, amid these complicated circumstances, we may gradually ascertain the peculiar qualities which, by the constitution of our nature, are permanently connected with the emotions we feel."

Agreeably to this last remark, which is founded on the basis of solid rea-

* Some such attributive as *mental* is wanting to the title-page of this publication, in order to distinguish it from a book of cookery.

soning, he observes that—"In the investigation of CAUSES, the first and most important step is the accurate examination of the EFFECT to be explained. In the science of the mind, however, as well as in that of the body, there are few effects altogether simple, or in which accidental circumstances are not combined with the proper effect. Unless, therefore, by means of repeated experiments, such accidental circumstances are accurately distinguished from the phenomena that permanently characterize the effect, we are under the necessity of including in the cause the causes also of all the accidental circumstances with which the effect is accompanied.

"With the emotions of taste, in almost every instance, many other accidental emotions of pleasure are united; unless, therefore, we have previously acquired a distinct and accurate conception of that peculiar effect which is produced on our minds, when the emotions of taste are felt, and can precisely distinguish it from the effects that are produced by these accidental qualities, we must necessarily include, in the causes of such emotions, those qualities also which are the causes of the accidental pleasures with which this emotion is accompanied."

This observation of Mr. Alison's, than which nothing can be more accurate and just, is happily illustrated by the famous story, in Don Quixote, of the dispute about the wine that had received a two-fold tincture from a key with a leathern thong tied to it.

"An inquiry into the nature and principles of taste," Mr. Alison justly observes, "may naturally be supposed to consist of the following PARTS, and to be conducted in the following manner.

"I. The first part would contain an analysis, or examination of that effect which is produced on

the mind, when these emotions are felt; and of their distinction from the simple emotions of pleasure.

"II. The second part would contain an investigation of the nature of the qualities that are fitted by the constitution of our nature to produce these emotions; and of their distinction from the qualities that are productive only of the simple emotions of pleasure.

"III. The third part of such a work would contain an investigation of the nature of that faculty by which these emotions are received; and the pursuit of it would naturally lead to the important inquiry, Whether there is any standard by which the perfection and imperfection of this faculty may be determined? and to the illustration of the means by which it may be either corrected or improved.

"Such are the objects which it seems to me most important to ascertain in the philosophy of taste; and such is the method in which these Essays towards this inquiry have been conducted. But, when I consider both the extent and the difficulty of such an investigation, and recollect the errors into which many great men have fallen upon these subjects, I can only find resolution to present the first part of my inquiries to the public."

Mr. Alison's method of philosophizing, by analysis, on the complicated subject of taste, is just: and, in pursuing it, he discourses, in his first essay, on the nature of the emotions of sublimity and beauty. He treats, under this general head, of the effect produced upon the imagination by objects of sublimity and beauty.

Whenever any object, either of sublimity or beauty, is presented to the mind, every man, he believes, is conscious of a train of thought being immediately awakened in his imagination, *analogous* to the character or expression of the original object. The simple perception of the object, we frequently find, is insufficient to excite these

those emotions; unless it be accompanied with this operation of mind, unless, according to common expression, our imagination be seized, and our fancy busied in the pursuit of all those trains of thought which are *allied* to this character or expression. That unless this exercise of the imagination be excited, the emotions of sublimity or beauty are unfelt, he illustrates by many apt observations on the works of nature and of art. These accumulated, and others to which they are calculated to give birth in the mind of the attentive and reflecting reader, produce a complete conviction, in our judgment, that Mr. Alison is right when he infers, that whenever the emotions of sublimity or beauty are felt, that exercise of imagination is produced, which consists in the indulgence of a train of thought; that, when this exercise is prevented, these emotions are unfelt or unperceived; that whatever tends to increase this exercise of mind, tends, in the same proportion, to increase these emotions; and that, on the whole, the effect produced on the mind by objects of sublimity and beauty, consists in the production of this exercise of imagination. It is obvious, that the emotion of taste is not produced by every train of thought; for all thought runs in train. Mr. Alison, therefore, who had before observed, that emotions are *analogous* and *allied* to their original objects, proceeds to ascertain the nature or the causes of the emotions of sublimity and beauty, and their difference from those ordinary trains which are unaccompanied with such pleasure. This difference, he thinks, consists in two things: 1st, In the nature of the ideas or conceptions which compose such trains; and, 2dly, In the nature or law of their succession.

The trains of thought suggested by objects either of sublimity or beauty are, in all cases, according to our author, composed of ideas capable of exciting some affection or emotion; and that are, also, connected throughout by some principle of connection.

He endeavours to prove that, wherever the emotions of sublimity or beauty are felt, some affection is uniformly excited by the presence of the object, before the more complex emotion of beauty or sublimity be produced. Here he illustrates the connection between taste and particular habits and associations of ideas, in a very ingenious and pleasing manner, from instances drawn from familiar life and observation. Thus Mr. Alison concludes, on the whole, that the effect which is produced upon the mind by objects of taste may be considered as consisting in the production of a regular or consistent train of ideas of emotion. Hence, he thinks, arises an important distinction between the emotions of taste, and all our different emotions of simple pleasure, in which no additional train of thought is necessary. As in every operation of taste there are thus two different faculties employed, viz. some affection or emotion raised, and the imagination excited to a train of thought corresponding to this emotion, the peculiar pleasure which attends, and which constitutes the emotions of taste, may naturally be considered as composed of the pleasures which separately attend the exercise of these faculties, or, in other words, as produced by the union of pleasing emotion, with the pleasure which, by the constitution of our nature, is annexed to the exercise of imagination.

Mr. Alison's position, that taste consists in affecting emotion prolonged in a train of congenial emotions is perhaps, in some measure, confirmed and illustrated by the fact, that the mind is forcibly struck, and feels very sensible delight in the concatenation or accumulation of many similar and congenial circumstances, as well as in contrast. Every passion and emotion is eager to indulge and heighten itself, and to draw every thing around into its own vortex. This, indeed, is no more, perhaps, than what is included in Mr. Alison's doctrine.

[To be continued.]

P O E T R Y.

ZARA AND SEBASTIAN.

AN IMITATION OF THE OLD SPANISH
BALLAD.

ON Algiers' majestlic turrets
Softly shone the lamp of night,
Softly roll'd the slumb'ring ocean,
Silver'd with her milder light.

Through the brave Sebastian's prison
Slowly moves a languid beam;
On the floor he lies in sorrow,
Tears adown his bosom stream.

Yet in Seville's holy battles
Glory fill'd his youthful breast;
Many a haughty Moorish Chieftain
Bow'd to him his lofty crest.

But the brave are still most tender,
Tho' in storms, like rocks of snow,
Which defy the wintry tempests,
But at Spring's soft breathings flow.

Where the gentle Guadalquiver
Thro' an ancient forest sweeps,
There, in sadness, lives his lady,
There his lovely infant weeps.

Busy Mem'ry paints his pleasures
Ere the Moor enslav'd his arm;
Love pourtrays a thousand dangers
That his blooming bride alarm.

"Dear Elvira, must we never,
"Never meet again?" he cried:
"Ever must this gloomy dungeon
"Keep Sebastian from thy side?

"Hah! the keys, that lead to freedom,
"By my careless guardian lie;
"I will seize this precious moment
"From these hated walls to fly.

"Oh, be still, my drowsy keeper;
"Seal his lids, propitious Sleep;
"Lock the portals of his senses,
"While I seek the briny deep.

"Heav'n guide my wand'ring footsteps,
"Yield, pale moon, thy purest ray,
"Whilst I climb the lofty rampart,
"And the heaving waves survey.

"From yon palace, rob'd in silver,
"Lo! a pensive beauty breaks;
"Here she hies, dishevell'd, drooping—
"Hark! to me she softly speaks,"—

"Gracious Alla! do I see thee
"From thy savage keeper fly?
"Turn, oh turn thee, vent'rous captive,
"Else by torture thou wilt die:

"For my father hates thy country,
"Great and cruel are thy foes;
"Yet one tender anxious bosom
"Pants to soothe thee to repose:

"Long I've lov'd thee, gallant Christian,
"Oft I've from my maidens stole,
"Near thy grated cell to wander,
"And disclose my tender soul.

"On that day, when first they brought thee
"In these hated walls to lie,
"I beheld thy silent sorrows,
"I beheld thy downcast eye.

"Since that hour that saw thee captive,
"I have sigh'd in chains of thine;
"Love possess'd my pitying spirit,
"And thy woes have all been mine."—

"Much I grieve for thee, bright damsel,"
"Soft the wond'ring youth reply'd,
"For beyond this world of waters
"Lives my dear, my wedded bride.

"I can ne'er return thy kindness,
"Rich and lovely as thou art;
"For some gallant Moorish captain
"Keep the treasure of thy heart.

"Tho' from this detested city
"I dare scarcely hope to fly,
"Dear Elvira's beauteous image
"Only with her love can die."

Deeply sigh'd the wounded virgin,
Thrice she droop'd her lovely head;
By the ramparts lowly bending,
Thus the hapless beauty said—

"Mild as yonder gliding planet
"Is the love with which I glow;
"Never shall it wrong thy lady,
"Never shall it work thee woe.

"Tho' I deem thy smiles as grateful
"As the ev'ning's silent rain,
"Pleasant as the tow'ring palm tree,
"Waving o'er the sandy plain.

"Tho' I deem thy converse soothing
"As the sweet sounds that descend,
"When our prophet bids his angels
"Over dying virtue bend;

"I com-

" I commend thy stedfast spirit,
 " Even while my tender heart
 " Swells with new, with keener anguish,
 " At the tale thy lips impart.

" Yet I still will make thee happy.
 " Tho' I ne'er must hope for peace;
 " I will loose these tyrant fetters,
 " And attempt thy wish'd release.

" Many long and happy seasons
 " Are perhaps in store for thee,
 " But, alas! the form of pleasure
 " Zara's eyes must never see.

" Near the beach behold that vessel,
 " Gently bid the captain stay;
 " Let him see this golden signet,
 " And thy pleasure he'll obey.

" Swiftly fly then, lovely Christian;
 " All guard thee o'er the sea;
 " Bid thy fair, thy blest Elvira,
 " Shed one pitying tear for me."—

" Thanks," reply'd the grateful hero;
 " Time this kindness ne'er shall blot;
 " In Elvira's pure orisons
 " Zara ne'er shall be forgot.

" Fare thee well, thou gen'rous beauty;
 " May some noble warrior's love
 " Win from grief thy tender spirit,
 " And all thoughts of me remove!"

Now the morning's waken'd breezes
 Wanton'd in the spreading sail;
 To the shores of Spain they bore him,
 To Seville's delightful vale.

Slow the weeping maid departed,
 Oft she, ling'ring, turn'd her view
 Where along the bright'ning water
 Fast the lessening vessel flew.

W H I S T.

FROM AMUSEMENT, A POEM, BY
 HENRY JAMES FYE, ESQ.

BUT say, what fashionable form ap-
 pears,
 Whose vacant brow reflection's aspect
 wears?

Who rolls the eye with senseless sapience
 full,

In trifies wise, and venerably dull?—

I know him well.—In midnight fumes en-
 clos'd,

Of the VIRGINIAN weed, while FOLLY
 doz'd

DULLNESS advanc'd, with Aldermannic
 tread,

In solemn silence, to the idiot's bed,
 And in the produce of the fool's embrace
 The father's sense and mother's wit we
 trace:

Both with a parent's love their offspring
 kiss'd,

Prefag'd his future fame, and call'd him
 WHIST.

Far from the courtly race, in private bred,
 With rural swains his early youth he led,
 The cheering solace, by the wint'ry fire,
 Of the fat parson or the drunken 'quire;
 Till, when each livelier game could charm
 no more,

And dear QUADRILLE itself became a
 bore,

Capricious taste, with novel nonsense
 fraught,

To town this scientific stranger brought,
 Taught him the courtly circle's smile to
 share,

Till Fashion bade him reign sole monarch
 there.

Struck with amaze, his sprightlier rivals
 fly

The chilling torpor of his gorgon eye:
 SPADILLE no longer rears his fable shield,

PAM drops his halberd, and forsakes the
 field.—

See where around the silent vot'ries sit,
 To radiant beauty blind, and deaf to
 wit;

Each vacant eye appears with wisdom
 fraught,

Each solemn blockhead looks as if he
 thought.

Here coward Insolence insults the bold,
 And selfish Av'rice boasts his lust of gold;

Ill-temper vents her spleen, without of-
 fence,

And pompous Dulness triumphs over Sense.
 Should some intrusive infant in the room

Disturb, with jocund voice, the general
 gloom,

The parent's eye, with short-liv'd frenzy
 wild,

Reproves the frolic of his wiser child.—
 O strange extreme of fancy's wayward
 mood!

Dissemper'd pleasure's sickly change of
 food,

Which, loathing every taste of known
 delight,

Provokes, with trash, her blunted appe-
 tite.

ON COURTSHIP.

WOULD you act the prudent lover,
 Still maintain the manly part;

Let not downcast looks discover
 All the sorrows of your heart.

U 2

Woma

Woman, soon the truth divining,
Shilly laugh, or sharply rail,
When the swain, in accents whining,
Tells his melancholy tale.

Nor, by sanguine hopes directed,
Use a victor's haughty strain;
Every nymph, by pride protected,
Learns to scorn the forward swain.

Him for conquest Love shall fashion,
Him the Graces all attend,
Who to the most ardent passion
Joins the lover and the friend.

ON AN ECHO.

NO more the sportive Echo chide,
O swain, with notes by you sup-
ply'd;
While thus thy mimic voice I try,
If you are silent, so am I.

IN QUEEN MARY'S ROOM, WHERE
KING JAMES WAS BORN. CASTLE
OF EDINBURGH. TAKEN VERBATIM
AT LITERATUM. 1772.

LORD Jesus Christ, that crounit was
with thorne,
Preserve the birth quibus Badgie heir is
borne,
And send his sonne successione to reigne
still,
Lang in this realme, if that it be thy will!
Als grant, O Lord, quhat ever of hir pro-
ceed
Be to thy glorie, honer, and prais, so
beid.

19 Junii, 1566.

ON A VERY YOUNG LADY.

SO brightly sweet Florinda's eyes
Their rising beams display,
That, as the parched Indians, we
Even dread the coming day:

For if her morning rays with such
Unusual vigour stream,
How must th' unhappy world be scorcht
With her meridian beam?

If saw the innocently kill
With an unaiming dart,
Who shall resist her, when with *kill*
She levels at a heart?

If with such smiles the pretty nymph
Now captivates the sense,
What, when her glory's at the height,
Will be their influence?

ON A WALL OF THE ABBEY CHURCH,
EDINBURGH.

TAKEN IN 1772!

ANAGRAM.

WILLIAM GRAHAM!

*All, me! I gravel am, and dust,
And to the grave return I must:
O painted piece of living clay!
Man, be not proud of thy short day!*

1646.

SONNET.

TO HOPE.

BY W. HAMILTON ESQ.

ALL thro' a weary wilderness of woe,
Where the sad cypress intercepts the
light;
Hope gleams athwart the paths we're
doom'd to go,
Or from some eminence attracts the
light.

With patient toil, the summit we attain,
However steep, encumber'd, or per-
plex'd;
Where oft we find a cheerless, barren
plain,
Or view the flat'rer beck'ning to the
next.

Such winning blandishments, such match-
less arts!
Against experience still insure her reign,
Like the poor earth-worm, sever'd into
parts,
The broken spirit, they unite again:
E'en when Despair hath lost the vap'rish
light,
He sinks to trace it in the realms of night.

FROM ANACREON.

FAIN would I strike the lyre to kings,
And give to War the sounding strings;
But lo! the chords rebellious prove,
And tremble with the notes of love.

In vain I quarrel with my lyre,
In vain I change the rebel wire;
Boldly I strike to War again,
But Love prevails through all the strain.

O, since not master of the shell,
Ye kings, and sons of War, farewell!
And since the Loves the songs require,
To Venus I resign the lyre.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

Rome, June 18.

LETTERS from Ancona inform us, that on the night between the 9th and 10th inst. a violent shock of an earthquake was felt in that city and its environs for the space of three hours; another was felt on the 10th, and a third on the 14th; the last was by much the most violent.

We further learn, that the trade of that city falls off greatly, the vessels from the Levant no longer stop at Ancona, but proceed directly to Trieste. The city itself is also in a deplorable situation; above 1000 workmen are out of bread, nor can they find wherewith to employ themselves.

Naples, June 22. There has been another earthquake in the two Calabrias, which has done great damage. The first shocks were followed by a violent storm of hail and thunder, by which six persons in one parish lost their lives.

Lisbon, June 24. Count de Rhodes, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary from the King of Prussia, is arrived here. He is the first Prussian Minister who has resided at this Court.

Naples, June 26. The marriages of our two Princesses, Donna Theresa and Donna Louisa, with the two Arch-dukes Francis and Ferdinand, are finally settled, and Prince de Ruspoli is appointed Ambassador Extraordinary by the King of Hungary, to demand our Princesses of his Sicilian Majesty. A marriage has also been concerted between our Prince-royal and an Archduchess; but it will not take place for these four years.

Our Sovereigns intend, it seems, after the Queen has lain-in, to go to Vienna with the two Princesses to assist at their marriage; they mean to go by sea to Trieste, and return from Vienna by land.

Warsaw, June 30. The Diet is said to be seriously occupied in settling the succession of the Polish Throne. The opinions of the members are divided. Some are for preserving the ancient form of election, which others regard as too turbulent, and prefer an hereditary succession, whilst others propose to call to the Throne a certain family, but on condition that that family shall not enjoy it hereditarily, but in a direct male line to the third descendant inclusively, at whose death a Diet extraordinary shall assemble to place on the Throne a new family, or confirm the former in the continuation of the Royal dignity; but in this latter form we find all the inconveniences of an election. However, we are very anxious to see what mode the Diet will adopt in this matter,

which must be interesting to all the neighbouring powers.

Stockholm, July 2. In consequence of a letter from the King of Sweden the Chapter of his orders assembled last week, and appointed three of the most ancient of the Crosses and Commanders of the Order of the Sword, who are gone to Frederichshof, again to deprive General Armfeldt of the Grand Ribbon, and Colonels Halko and Van Otter of the little Cross of that Order.

Jassy, July 2. A courier is just arrived here with dispatches from Admiral Ushakow, commander of the Russian fleet in the Black Sea, which informs us of a considerable victory gained by the Russian Admiral over the Turks.—Admiral Ushakow having got information that 45 large Turkish vessels were on their voyage to Sinope, he ordered a detachment of his Squadron to pursue and attack them, which was done with such success, that above half of them were taken, burnt, or sunk, as they were entering the port.—The Russian artillery was at the same time served with so much skill and effect, that the magazines of the Turks at Sinope were wholly destroyed, and about 300 men made prisoners.

Munich, July 3. A dreadful epidemical disorder has broke out in Bavaria amongst the cattle. It first made its appearance at Straubing, from whence it communicated itself to this place. The oxen, sheep, and horses, infected with it, die almost immediately. Government are using their utmost endeavours to stop it, and, by the advice of the faculty, have ordered the stables to be fumigated, and brimstone to be mixed in the water given to the cattle.

Breslaw, July 4. A number of couviers were on Wednesday last dispatched to Vienna, London, Peterburgh, and the Hague, charged to carry to those courts the result of the conferences which have been held for this week past at Reichenbach between the Ambassadors of the court of Vienna and the Minister of State Count de Hertzberg.

In consequence of the solicitation of a number of merchants who frequent the fair of Frankfurt, and who are alarmed at his Majesty's prohibition against all communication between Silesia and the States of Austria, the King yesterday sent word to them that the necessary precautions had already been taken to prevent any inconvenience arising to their trade.

Milan, July 6. The commotion which lately took place here, appears to have originated from other motives than religious ones, as the Milanese now seem to extend

tend their complaints as far as the law. The peasants insist that all affairs shall be carried to Varese, to be regulated there according to the ancient administration, which is abolished; and if they mention punishment or imprisonment to them they become quite outrageous. We are anxious to see how Government will act in these delicate circumstances.

Vienna, July 7. Last night the Prince of Hesse-Homburg, a Major in the Royal Army, arrived here as courier from Field-Marshal Prince Cobourg; the substance of his dispatches is said to be, that the Prince de Cobourg attacked the Turkish army near Rudschick, under command of the Grand Vizier, and totally defeated them.

It is said, that upon the arrival of a messenger from Silisia, our court sent orders to the three Generals, Prince de Cobourg, Count Clairfait, and Baron de Vins, to stop all further operations against the Turks.

The hopes of seeing our King crowned in Hungary this month are vanished again, as the deliberations of the Diet go on so slowly, that no full sitting has been held for these eight days, nor has there hitherto been any Deputation sent from Offen to Vienna, as is customary three weeks previous to the Coronation.

Ratisbon, July 8. The Elector of Saxony still refuses to accept the *Conclusum* which fixes the limits of the Vicariate, and persists in demanding the amendments which he judges necessary for his honour, and the preservation of his rights. The Elector Palatine, who at first appeared very indifferent about it, now seems to have adopted the principles of his colleague; but as the *Conclusum* was not resolved upon without great opposition, it is not likely any change will be made in it, and this business, like many others, will probably remain undecided.

The public voice seems perfectly agreed as to the choice of the Emperor, and the ceremony of the coronation will, we think, take place sooner than was imagined. They must be fully convinced of this at Vienna, as Count de Seillern, Minister from Bohemia to the Diet, has been officially ordered to hold himself in readiness to accompany the King his master to Frankfurt, in quality of Chamberlain.

The disorder which prevails amongst the cattle in the neighbouring countries has made great ravages; a number of deer have perished by it at Freysingen, but the last accounts mentioned its having abated in its virulence.

Vienna, July 10. The Turkish campaign is again commenced with the siege of Czettin. The trenches were opened on the 3d instant, and for several days after the garrison kept up an incessant fire on the besiegers. An Austrian General

was killed soon after the trenches were opened.

We have lately received a confirmation of the defeat of a large body of the Turks commanded by Prince Maurojeni, near the city of Widin. Count Clairfait commanded the Austrians in this engagement against the Turks, who were completely routed, and obliged to abandon Little Wallachia.

Brest, July 11. The following ships are in this port at present, completely armed, viz one ship of 110 guns, two of 80, six 74, ten frigates from 36 to 40, and seven sloops. They are getting ready four ships of the line more, and as many frigates, which are all to be in the road by the 14th inst. We know not yet whether this fleet will sail, but in general all the cities which subsist by navigation and by trading to the colonies regard it as an object of the utmost importance to prevent England from aggrandizing itself at the expense of Spain, or strengthening itself by its alliances.

Masseyck, July 12. The army of execution against Liege, commanded by Prince d'Isenbourg, is already composed of the troops of Cologne, the Palatinate, Bavaria, Mentz, and Treves; the circle of Suabia has also promised to add to it 1050 infantry and 150 cavalry.

These dispositions have been followed by a declaration, addressed to the inhabitants of Liege and the county of Looz, in which the Directory of the Lower Rhine and Westphalia points out to them the fatal effects which accompany military executions, and exhorts them to peace and submission. The people of Liege, however, seem desirous of settling the business by force of arms.

Stockholm, July 13. The Finland mail of yesterday, and a messenger from the Duke of Sudermania, brought the news of the defeat of the Swedish fleets by those of Russia, on the 3d and 4th instant.

An unsuccessful attempt made by the King of Sweden to destroy the Russian coasting squadron at Viborg, and the approach of the Prince de Nassau, with the Cronstadt division, had already rendered the position of the Swedes at the entrance of Viborg Bay extremely critical, when the scarcity of ammunition, and the want of provisions, made their return to their own ports a measure of necessity.

The King resolved therefore to avail himself of a strong easterly wind, which set in on the 3d, and to set sail with both fleets for Swenik-Sund and Sweaborg.

The grand fleet had to penetrate through a narrow pass, and to sustain the fire of four Russian line of battle ships, two of which were placed on each side of the strait. After this it had to engage the whole of Admiral Titchitchakoff's line, which

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which was drawn up along the coast, at a small distance, while his frigates were ranged among the islands which lie nearer the shore.

The Swedish van, under Admiral Moëde, passed the Strait, without suffering any essential loss, firing, with great spirit, both broadsides against the enemy. The cannonade from the four Russian ships was however so powerful, and continued to be so well supported, that it was resolved by the Duke of Sudermania to make an attempt to burn them: but this operation proved so unsuccessful, that the fire-ships employed in it were driven upon one of his Royal Highness's own line of battle ships, and a frigate, both of which blew up.

This accident seems to have caused a degree of confusion among the ships that were to follow, four of which struck upon the rocks, and were left to the mercy of the enemy.

On their farther course along the coast, with a diminished force, the Swedes lost two more ships of the line, which were taken by the enemy. The engagement continued all night, and part of the next day, (the 4th) on the evening of which the Duke of Sudermania arrived at Sweaborg.

The fate of the coasting fleet is not so exactly known, no official accounts having yet been received from it; but it is certain that the king arrived the same evening in Swensk Sund, with a large part of the fleet, having lost six galleys, with eight hundred men, (of the guards) which were taken by the Russians, besides a number of smaller vessels taken or sunk, reported to amount to sixty. The whole loss in men, on the part of the Swedes, is estimated at seven thousand.

His Swedish majesty, having supplied the remains of his squadron with provisions and ammunition, and having been joined by the division under M. de Cronstedt, which had not been able to reach the Bay of Viborg, is already sailed again, with a view to prevent the Prince of Nassau, who is said to be advancing with the Cronstedt and Viborg squadrons, from getting into the port of Fredericksham.

Paris, July 15. On the 14th instant, M. de Montmorin, Minister of the Foreign Department, informed the Committee of Enquiry, that a body of troops had assembled in Savoy, which amounted already to 9000 men, and which was to be increased to 15,000, under the pretext of protecting the barriers of that Duchy.

From the Lower Elbe, July 16. We are assured that the Polish Ministry have notified to all the foreign Ambassadors, that they are ordered to declare that the Republic will not consent either to any future division or exchange of territory.

Madrid, July 16. His majesty has made a number of promotions in the subaltern posts in the navy; he has appointed 59 lieutenants of men of war, 60 of frigates, 81 midshipmen of men of war, and 32 of frigates.

Vicenna, July 16. Leopold, when he first ascended the throne, was the sweetest tempered and most affable prince; he is now become a king, nourishing chagrin and inquietude.

It is not without cause that he is thus altered: since his accession to the sovereignty, cares of every sort besiege the steps of his throne. His vast dominions are a prey to the most alarming divisions. In the interior parts, already the blood of the citizens begins to be shed; abroad, a destructive war consumes his treasures and his army, and he is at present threatened with the invasion of an enemy still more formidable than all the others.

It is estimated that the present war has cost Austria not less than two hundred millions, and 250,000 men, carried off by the sword and by disease.

Such are the causes of that profound melancholy which possesses our sovereign. Hungary every day gives him fresh alarms. The fitting of the 10th of July has disclosed pretensions which were formerly inconceivable. As a specimen, are the following.

"The king shall be bound to give an account of the disposal of the public money.

"He shall not have the privilege of declaring war or peace.

"There shall be granted to him, and his minister, three years, in order to acquire the Hungarian language.

"The State shall, in their own name, send ambassadors to foreign courts.

"The army shall swear allegiance, not to the King, but to the States.

"The King shall be for ever divested of the power of making laws.

"The royal authority, instead of being hereditary, shall henceforth be elective," &c.

Among their other demands, one which they made, to re-establish all the suppressed monasteries, would alone cost the king twenty millions.

One remarkable article is, "That if a Catholic nobleman embrace Lutheranism he shall be incapable of holding any office; if a tradesman, or a peasant, he shall be prosecuted as a criminal."

The Noblese, ignorant and uninformed, incapable of thinking or acting, allow themselves to be solely under the influence of the Priests, who do not fail to pride themselves in the weakness of those from whom they derive their authority, and to commit the most scandalous abuses.

Berlin.

Berlin, July 17. The 14th, which was to have been the day on which the Congress of Reichenbach was to determine whether there is to be war or peace, passed without any thing being finally concluded; but the day after a courier was sent to Vienna with the ultimatum from our Court; and if we do not receive a satisfactory answer, our troops will immediately enter Bohemia, they being already within a mile of the frontiers.

Vienna, July 17. The report of the Grand Vizier's having passed the Danube at the head of 100,000 men is not confirmed, the Turks, indeed, are approaching but very slowly, as there is not sufficient subsistence in Bulgaria either for the cavalry or infantry.

In consequence of an express received by his Apostolical Majesty from Reichenbach, touching his Prussian Majesty's intention as to the election of an Emperor, the whole Court is in motion, and preparing to depart for Frankfort.

Stockholm, July 17. Yesterday morning, at half past seven o'clock, the King of Sweden's Adjutant, Baron Stiernblad, arrived at Uricksdahl, and brought the news of his Majesty having gained a complete victory over the Russian coasting fleet in Swenck-Sund.

The King having, after the retreat from Viborg, collected his coasting fleet at Swenck-Sund, was attacked by the Prince of Nassau on the 9th of July. The battle began at half past nine in the morning, and lasted twenty-four hours. At half past nine in the morning of the 10th instant, the victory was completely decided on the side of the Swedes, who took, run ashore, or burnt, forty-two frigates and other vessels of the Russians, of which, it is said, twenty-three are likely to be saved. The Swedes have also taken prisoners 110 officers, among whom are the Russian Brigadier Deniseo and the Prince of Nassau's flag Captain, with about 2000 men.

The King himself commanded during the whole action. His Majesty lost two gun-boats, which were blown up, the *Udman-Ingeborg*, which was sunk by a bomb after the crew had been saved, and some gun-yaws, which were dismounted. The loss of the Swedes in officers and men is said to be inconsiderable; but the death of Captain Baron Duben is particularly regretted, who, after he had taken a prize with eight thirty pounders, was killed in the middle of the action.

Vienna, July 17. On the morning of the 14th instant died, at his head quarters in Moravia, the brave and respectable Marshal Laudohn. Although he suffered great pain in the course of his malady, his steadfast temper displayed itself to the last moment. He gave the most distinct orders relative to the army, and made his

testament. His demise is a source of general and unfeigned affliction.

Vienna, July 18. Marshal Laudohn's body is to remain at Maria Brunn, till the spot in his garden at Haderfeldorf, in which they mean to inter it, is ready to receive it. His epitaph will be engraven on some stones taken from the fortifications of Belgrade.

The preliminaries between our Court and that of Prussia were signed on the 1st instant, and the ratification of them has been sent to Baron de Spielman, who it is expected will return by the 26th instant, at which period, it is thought, the full convention will be signed. According to these preliminaries, Poland cedes Dantzick and Thorn, and receives, in return, some districts of Galicia, comprising, amongst others, the towns of Brodi and Szamorza.

His Majesty, on learning that the preliminaries were signed, immediately issued orders for 20 battalions of infantry and 10 divisions of cavalry to be sent into the low countries from Bohemia and Moravia. These troops, joined to those which are in the province of Luxembourg already, will form an army more than sufficient to reduce the other provinces to obedience. We are, besides, very credibly informed, that our Court has entered into an agreement with the Electors of Mentz, Cologne, Treves, and Palatine, by which it is settled that the troops employed at present in the execution of Liege shall, when that execution is accomplished, enter into the Austrian service against the low countries.

Holland, we are assured, has made many attempts to effect a mediation between Leopold and the Belgic insurgents, but without any success.

The proposals offered to the King by the Hungarians he has rejected, and has caused his indignation at them to be intimated to the Diet.

Frankfort, July 19. Many public papers mention, that the King of Prussia has declared to all the courts of Europe, that his Ambassador at Constantinople has exceeded his powers by concluding a Treaty of Alliance with the Porte, and that the King has therefore recalled him from his embassy.

We further learn, that the said Ambassador, M. Van Dietz, left Constantinople in May last.

Brussels, July 19. The parade with artillery through the town yesterday afforded a very pleasing spectacle. It was the turn of the parish of La Chapelle; and among the subscribers was a Lady who has fourteen children, and who, notwithstanding, gave thirty louis. The triumphal car was assigned to this respectable family, and nine beautiful little boys, with

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with three charming girls, occupied the seats, dressed in emblematical attire; the mother, who is only thirty-six years of age, was placed in the top, and escorted round the town, amidst the acclamations of thousands of spectators.

Vienna, July 24. The misunderstanding which reigns amongst many General officers employed in Moravia since the death of Marshal Laudohn, has hastened the departure of General Lafayette, who sets off to take the chief command of the armies to-morrow.

The Archduke Francis has been admitted into the Council as a Minister of the conferences. The other eldest Archdukes frequent the Assemblies in company with the Ministers, and will shortly take a part in affairs in the different departments.

A deputation is expected shortly from the States of Hungary, the interior affairs of which kingdom will now, we are in hopes, bear a more promising appearance, though the session of the 19th was very turbulent.

A great number of couriers still pass between Austria and Silesia. One arrived on the 21st, who brought a sort of ultimatum. We are assured that in eight or ten days we shall know the result of the deliberations.

Berlin, July 24. A third Ambassador is shortly going from hence to Constantinople. The person is Colonel Zeglin, who was for many years past our resident at that court, and has now received instructions to go there a second time. Count Hertzberg has written a private letter to Count Schulenberg, that he should personally confer with Colonel Zeglin on the object of his Embassy. The Colonel is a great favourite with the Sultan, to whose father he rendered very important services. His wife is an Armenian, whom he married at Constantinople, and who has kept up a constant correspondence with the principal Turkish ladies, which will, no doubt, prove extremely advantageous to the purposes of his Embassy.

Paris, July 24. A letter from Havre informs us, that one part of the regiment which quitted Tobago is arrived in that port. The Municipality have ordered the troops to remain on board until orders shall arrive from court.

Vienna, July 24. Yesterday Adjutant Wiese arrived here express from General Baron de Vins, with an account that the fortress of Czestyn was taken by storm on the 20th instant.

Adjutant Wiese, who brought the news, headed the party which stormed the fortress.

Liege, August 1. The new chosen members of our Government took the oath to the Nation and the law of the land.

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last Wednesday with great ceremony, and amidst the general rejoicings of the people.

Frankfort, August 1. We have accounts from Ratibon, that the King of Prussia is pushing the speedy election of an Emperor as much as possible, it being absolutely necessary for the welfare of the Empire that it should not be longer without a head.

New-York, May 12. It is with regret we inform the public, that on Thursday last the most valuable part of the glass-works erected at New-Bremen, in this State, by J. F. Amerlung, Esq; was consumed by fire. We have not heard the particulars. The loss is, however, a public one; for, although the manufactory was in its infancy, the glass, of every kind, was equal to any imported from Europe, and as cheap.

Boston, May 19. The Select Men having received from the executors of Dr. Franklin's will, extracts therefrom, communicated the same to the town at the town-meeting yesterday. The extracts are long, and contain many of those judicious and elegant maxims and observations for which the Doctor is so justly celebrated. They contain legacies to the town, the American academy of arts and sciences, and his relations. To the town he has bequeathed 1,100l. sterling, 100l. of which is to the grammar-school, the interest of which is to be laid out in medals, to be given to such scholars as shall excel in certain acquirements. The other 1000l. sterling the Select Men of the town of Boston are to hold in trust, to be lent out in sums not exceeding 60l. nor less than 15l. sterling, to young married artisans, under the age of twenty-five years, who can procure sufficient recommendation for sobriety, and of having performed the duties required by their indentures, of at least two reputable citizens, who are willing to be sureties for them, at an interest of five per cent. per annum; the interest and a tenth part of the principal to be paid annually. This sum being thus made an accumulating fund, the Doctor has provided for the appropriation of its product in 100 years, when it will amount to 131,000l. sterling. One hundred thousand pounds for public works, and the remaining 31,000l. to begin a second fund on the principles of the legacy now left, until another century expires, when it will accumulate to 4,000,000l.; 1,000,000l. of which the town is to dispose of, and the other 3,000,000l. the State, the Doctor not wishing to extend his views any further.

Extract of a Letter from Nassau, New Providence, May 14.

"In many instances the expectation of our cotton planters have again been disappointed; particularly on Great Exuma and Cat-Island.

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"On almost all the Islands the crops have this year been extremely partial; plantations closely adjoining each other, in scarcely aught dissimilar, and having equal advantages on the score of attention, varying much in their produce.

"It is mentioned, as a curious and important fact, that some fields which were wholly neglected, and others that were never topped, have been productive, while several, on which much labour and attention have been bestowed, yielded scarcely any thing.

"The total amount of the crop, it is generally thought, will not exceed 500 tons."

Kingston, Jamaica, May 29. The following account of all the sugar and rum imported into Great Britain from the different islands in the West Indies, between the 25th day of March, 1789, and the 25th day of March, 1790, with the number of vessels employed in that trade, has been transmitted by the agent to the Honourable Committee of Correspondence.

	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Casks of Sugar.</i>	<i>Casks of Rum.</i>
Jamaica	146	58,365	15,022
Antigua	16	7,908	285
St. Kitt's	11	5,332	286
Barbadoes	12	4,260	21
Grenadoes	31	10,471	1,027
Montserrat	4	1,694	4
Nevis	3	1,289	17
Dominica	7	1,972	10
St. Vincent's	9	4,561	31
Tortola	7	1, 65	9
	246	97,317	16,712

The failure in the shipments of coffee from this island to North America, is one cause of the very considerable quantity at market. This is chiefly owing to the large exportation of that article by the French, who now, almost exclusively, supply the American markets.

Calcutta, Feb. 18. All letters from the southward, and through every channel, concur in describing the inaction of Tip-poo's troops, ever since their repulse on the 29th ult. as a strongly presumptive circumstance that the Sultan himself is disabled from active hostility, by having been at least severely wounded in the lines of Travancore. Some accounts speak with confident certainty, and adduce positive proof of his being dead. One very respectable authority writes, that he was wounded in the leg by the ball that killed his horse, which was afterwards found; and that as he was carried off he received the mortal wound of an arrow in the back, and expired next day. Certain it is, from the articles afterwards found in the ditch, the presumption of his extreme personal danger is highly confirmed. His rings, of great value, a small French ink stand which

he used, his large and small Persian seals and beads, his paundran, or beetle-box, his fuscue and pistols, with his name engraved, sword, and palankeen, &c. &c. And it is also certain that his camp and people are in great apparent dejection.

SCOTLAND.

Edinburgh July 26. This day the High Court of Judiciary met for the trial of James Macrae, of Hollmains, indicted at the instance of the Hon. Lady Ramsay and Sir Wm. Ramsay, of Bamff, bart. and of his Majesty's Advocate, for the murder of the late Sir George Ramsay, bart. on the 14th of April last. Mr. Macrae not having appeared to stand trial, sentence of fugitation (outlawry) was pronounced against him.

IRELAND.

Catacomb.—On Friday, the 9th of July, as some workmen were cutting turf on a bog near Donadea, Ireland, the feat of Sir Fitzgerald Aylmer, bart. at about 17 feet from the surface, they discovered a vault of a quadrangular form, which seemed to baffle all the efforts they could make with spades and shovels for an entrance; but applying to a neighbouring smith, he furnished them with some sledges, which answered the purpose so well that in less than a quarter of an hour a breach was made about four feet in length and three in breadth: one of the peasants in the mean time entering, beheld, to his astonishment, a large stone coffin supported by short pillars, about two feet from the floor of the vault; affrighted at so melancholy and unexpected a discovery, he ran out and immediately fainted away. This circumstance quite disheartened his companions, who instantly went to Sir Fitzgerald Aylmer, informing him of what had happened: he, accompanied by some gentlemen and servants, repaired thither without delay, carrying some torches with them to examine the vault the better.

As soon as they came to the place, they lighted the torches, and William Coates, Esq. entered the vault first, holding a large torch in one hand and an hammer in the other; Sir Fitzgerald and the other gentlemen followed some little time after, and opening, with much difficulty, the coffin, they found the skeleton and bones of a man of more than ordinary size, a spear by his side, and two small urns, or vessels, of brass, (both empty) having the figures of the sun and moon engraved on them in a most curious though antique manner.

The vault measured 6 feet 3 inches in height, 12 in length, 8 in breadth, and the

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the coffin was 10 feet 4 inches in length, although the skeleton and bones (which are in great preservation) were but 8 feet 3 inches and an half in length; the spear was 7 feet long, but the handle immediately mouldered into dust when touched.

The coffin and contents were brought on a car to Donadea, amidst the acclamations of a numberless crowd, where they remain to be seen by the curious; those who have visited it, cannot conjecture by whom, or at what time this body was placed at so great a distance from the surface of the earth.

That it is the remains of some Irish Chieftain, is probable, and that it remained there untouched for upwards of 1400 years, is beyond all manner of doubt; from the urns and Pagan figures found engraved on them, it is clear that they were deposited there before the introduction of Christianity into this island.

A man, named Timothy Francis Power, was hanged lately in Ireland upon his own land, for a murder he committed there. A little before he was turned off, having taken a view of the surrounding country, he called to his wife very deliberately and told her, that his pigs were rooting up the potatoes in the next field, and desired her to fend somebody to drive them out of it, when she, with as much coolness, complied.

Dublin, July 30. Yesterday afternoon a number of the felons in the New Prison forced their way through the sewers, and from thence into the several necessaries with which they have communication. The exact number which has escaped was not last night ascertained, but it is thought to be about thirty. Seven of the prisoners were secured in making their retreat, and dragged out of the sewers in a state shocking to behold. By the direction of Mr. Gamble, the Ordinary of the prison, they were suffered to cleanse themselves under the pipe before they were bolted and committed to their cells.

A detachment of the army, their firelocks loaded with ball cartridges, were introduced into the body of the prison, and succeeded in preserving peace and order.

There are now three hundred men in this prison, many of them under order of transportation; as they are in general muscular, active, and desperate young fellows, very serious consequences are to be apprehended from their machinations to escape.

COUNTRY NEWS.

Bristol, July 26. On Wednesday last, one of the Pill boats, with three of his sons, went in a pilot to King Road, in or-

der to navigate a ship then lying there, and one of the young men being put on board the vessel for that purpose, the father, with his other two sons, quitted the ship, but they had hardly got from alongside before they were overtaken by a most violent squall of wind, which overfet the boat, and they instantly perished, the people on board the ship being utterly incapable of affording them the least assistance.

Newcastle, Aug. 7. Tuesday the assizes for this town were closed at the crown end, when William Sanderfon was convicted of burglariously breaking into the house of Mrs. Sowerby, and stealing therein a purse containing 68 guineas, and two half guineas, the property of Elizabeth Donnison, and received sentence of death, but was afterwards reprieved. And on Thursday morning the assizes ended for the county of Northumberland, at which assizes the following five prisoners received sentence of death, viz. John Brown and James Greenwood, for burglary; Thomas Hill, George Bolton, and Isabel Wilson, widow, for horse stealing. Hill and Wilson are reprieved, the other three are left for execution.

On Tuesday morning last, about eight o'clock, the trial of Thomas Watfon, for the wilful murder of George Gibson, (by shooting him with a pistol) came on at the Moothall, and continued for seven hours, when the prisoner was convicted upon the clearest evidence, and immediately received judgment of death. On Thursday last he was executed at the West-gate, pursuant to his sentence, and his body delivered to the surgeons for dissection.

During the trial of Watfon, at the Moothall, Jane Stephenfon, an old offender, was detected picking pockets, and, on examination, several pocket handkerchiefs were found concealed in her bosom. She was immediately taken into custody, and as soon as the trial of Watfon ended, was arraigned, convicted of the fact, and sentenced to seven years transportation.

DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

July 29. Commodore Colby is appointed to the command of the marine forces in and on the coast of Ireland. He yesterday kissed hands on the appointment. This is a new office, and it is made for the regulation of the service in that kingdom. The Commodore is to reside at Cork, and he will have the superior command; so that all the king's ships touching there will be subject to his orders.

General Clarke is to go out to Canada, in the room of Lord Dorchester, who wishes to come home.

In case of a war, the Duke of Gloucester is to be appointed Commander in Chief of the forces.

PLACES under GOVERNMENT vacant.

Master of the Horse to the King—vacant since the death of the late Duke of Montagu—valued at 600*l.* per annum.

Treasurer to the Queen—vacant by the death of the late Earl of Guildford—value 200*l.* per annum.

Governor of Windsor Castle—vacant since the death of the late Duke of Montagu—value 118*l.* per annum.

Ranger of Greenwich Park—vacant since the death of the late Lady Catharine Pelham—value 1000*l.* per annum.

Ditto of Epping Forest—vacant since the death of the late Earl Tylney.

Two Knights of the Garter—vacant since the deaths of the late Duke of Leeds and Duke of Montagu.

Two Knights of the Bath—vacant since the deaths of the late Sir John Irwin and Lord Heathfield.

Lord Lieutenant and Custos Rotulorum of Middlesex—vacant since the death of the late Duke of Northumberland.

Collector Outwards of the Customs in the Port of London—vacant since the death of the late Duke of Manchester—value 200*l.* per annum.

Collector Inwards of the Customs in the Port of London—vacant by the death of Sir Bankes Jenkinson, baronet—value 200*l.* per annum.

Governor of Gibraltar—vacant by the death of Lord Heathfield—salary 730*l.* per annum.

Joint Vice-Treasurer of Ireland—vacant since the resignation of the Earl of Shannon—value 350*l.* per annum.

The following lords are to take the oaths and their seats in the House of Peers at the ensuing meeting of Parliament, in addition to those of the last session: Earl of Thanet and Lord Viscount Montagu, on coming of age; Earl of Cardigan, Earl of Guildford, and Lord Heathfield, on succeeding to their titles; Earl of Donegal, Earl of Fife, Lord Viscount Grimstone, Lord Mulgrave, and Lord Harewood, on their late creations; Earl of Kellie, Earl of Lauderdale, Earl of Dumfries, Earl of Elgin, Earl of Glasgow, and Lord Torphichen, on being newly elected to represent the Scots peerage; besides three vacancies occasioned by double returns.

The following are the Scots peers who voted at the late election of the sixteen, and whose peerages are disputed: Earl of Moray, Earl of Caithness, Lord Belhaven, Lord Newark, Lord Lyle, and Lord Ochiltree, Baron Castleknock, in Ireland.

The minor lords at the meeting of Parliament are, Duke of Rutland, Duke of Manchester, Marquis of Carmarthen, Ear

of Albemarle, Earl Waldegrave, Lord Grantham, Lord Holland, Lord Athburton, Lord Boringdon, Lord Berwick, and Lord Montagu, of Boughton.

A proclamation is ordered to be issued, proroguing both Houses of Parliament, from Tuesday the 10th of August to Tuesday the 12th of October.

The election of sixteen peers came on at Holyrood House, to represent the ancient nobility of Scotland. The preliminaries being adjusted, the following appeared to be the numbers on the calling up:

Lord Viscount Stormont	42
The Earl of Eglington	39
Elgin	38, or 37
Balcarras	37
Glasgow	37, or 36
Lord Cathcart	36
Elphinstone	36
The Earl of Kellie	35
Moray	34
Lauderdale	34
Dumfries	34
Breadalbane	34
Lord Torphichen	34
The Earl of Galloway	33
Selkirk	33
Stair	33
Hoptown	33
Lord Somerville	32
The Marquis of Tweeddale	32
Lord Napier	32
Kinnaird	32
The Earl of Strathmore	31
Lord Cranstown	31
Elibank	31
Gray	30
The Earl of Aberdeen	28
Glencairn	25
Lord Saltoun	19
Sempill	18

This election, which has been so strongly contested, will ultimately be decided in the House of Lords; for the Clerks *Registrars*, being merely Ministerial officers, were bound to receive, under protest, all the votes that were offered, and several, of course, did vote that have no just right. By the complicated nature of this return, these votes will be now subjected to a serious scrutiny.

The first thirteen lords on the list will be returned, as having a clear majority; the next five, as having all the same number of votes, will be returned in that way, but three only can be finally declared duly elected. The lords who have still fewer votes, however, may petition not only against these five, but generally against all, and a scrutiny of the whole poll will be the consequence.

From some suspicious circumstances, a coal-barge near Chelsea was lately boarded, when a complete apparatus for coinage was discovered. A very thick smoke issuing from it daily, was accounted for by

by pretending that an experiment was making for navigating ships by the force of steam.

M. De Beauchamp, Vicar-General of Babylon, has built a small observatory at Bagdat, on which he has placed the following inscription on a piece of white marble:

Observatorium
In Bagdat constructum
Post Caldeos Arabesque renovatum,
Ex munificencia regis Christianissimi ejus-
que
Ministri de Castries,
Variis instrumentis ornatum
Divæ Uranie ipsiusque amanti dilectissimo
de la Lande,
Dedicavit anno 1789,
P. J. DE BEAUCHAMP, Babiloniæ Vi-
carius Generalis.

Abstract of the Navy of England, made up to July 30.

In Com- mission.	Line	Fifty	Frig.	Sl.	Tot.
Grand Fleet, in					
Torbay	32	—	13	8	53
At Spithead	1	2	3	3	9
In the Downs and					
North Seas	—	—	2	7	9
At the Nore	1	—	2	—	3
At the West India					
Islands, and on					
the passage	—	1	5	1	7
Jamaica	—	1	1	6	8
In America and					
Newfoundland	—	1	4	2	7
East Indies	1	—	3	2	6
Botany Bay	—	—	—	2	2
Gibraltar and Me- diterranean	—	1	4	2	7
Fitting at Portf- mouth	6	—	2	1	9
Fitting at Ply- mouth	6	—	4	1	11
Fitting at Chatham					
and Sheerness	6	1	2	—	9
Fitting at Woolwich					
and Deptford	2	—	6	5	13
English and Irish					
Channels	—	—	8	24	32
Transports armed					
as state	—	—	7	—	7
Total in Commission	55	7	66	64	182
In Ordinary,					
At Portsmouth	34	2	14	7	57
Plymouth	24	3	9	8	44
Chatham	24	5	21	9	59
Sheerness	8	1	3	5	17
Woolwich and					
Deptford	—	1	19	6	26
Tot. Ord. & Com- Building	146	19	122	99	405
Total of the Eng. Navy	54	19	133	102	418

From the London Gazette Extraordinary.

Whitehall, Aug. 5. This morning one of his Majesty's Messengers arrived from Madrid, with dispatches from the Right Hon. Alleyne Fitz Herbert, his Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary at that Court, containing an account of the following Declaration and Counter-Declaration having been signed and exchanged, on the 24th of July last, by his Excellency, on the part of his Majesty, and by his Excellency Count Florida Blanca, his Catholic Majesty's Minister and principal Secretary of State, on the part of the Catholic King.

DECLARATION.

His Britannic Majesty having complained of the capture of certain vessels belonging to his subjects, in the Port of Nootka, situated on the north-west coast of America, by an officer in the service of the king; the under-signed Councillor and principal Secretary of State to his Majesty, being thereto duly authorised, declares, in the name and by the order of his said Majesty, that he is willing to give satisfaction to his Britannic Majesty for the injury of which he has complained; fully persuaded that his said Britannic Majesty would act in the same manner towards the king, under similar circumstances; and his Majesty further engages to make full restitution of all the British vessels which were captured at Nootka, and to indemnify the parties interested in those vessels, for the losses which they shall have sustained, as soon as the amount thereof shall have been ascertained:

It being understood that this Declaration is not to preclude, or prejudice the ulterior discussion of any right which his Majesty may claim to form an exclusive establishment at the Port of Nootka.

In witness whereof I have signed this Declaration, and sealed it with the seal of my arms. At Madrid, the 24th of July, 1790.

(L. S.) Signed
Le Comte de Florida Blanca.

COUNTER-DECLARATION.

His Catholic Majesty having declared that he was willing to give satisfaction for the injury done to the King, by the capture of certain vessels belonging to his subjects, in the Bay of Nootka, and the Count de Florida Blanca having signed, in the name and by the order of his Catholic Majesty, a Declaration to this effect; and by which his said Majesty likewise engages to make full restitution of the vessels so captured, and to indemnify the parties interested in those vessels for the losses they shall have sustained; the under-signed Ambassador Extraordinary and

and Plenipotentiary of his Majesty to the Catholic King, being thereto duly and expressly authorised, accepts the said Declaration in the name of the King; and declares that his Majesty will consider this Declaration, together with the performance of the engagements contained therein, as a full and entire satisfaction for the injury of which his Majesty has complained.

The under-signed declares, at the same time, that it is to be understood, that neither the said Declaration signed by Count Florida Blanca, nor the acceptance thereof by the under signed, in the name of the King, is to preclude or prejudice, in any respect, the right which his Majesty may claim to any establishment which his subjects may have formed, or should be desirous of forming in future, at the said Bay of Nootka.

In witness whereof I have signed this Counter-Declaration, and sealed it with the seal of my arms. At Madrid, the 24th of July, 1790.

(L. S.) Signed
Alleyne Fitz Herbert.

A native of India, named Juggul Ghose, died in November last near Calcutta, and no less than two females, who claimed the honour of being his wives, devoted themselves voluntary sacrifices on the funeral pile.

MARRIED.

At Kensington Palace, the Most Noble the Marquis of Graham, only son of the Duke of Montrose, and joint Pay-Master of his Majesty's Forces, to the Right Hon. Lady Caroline Montagu, daughter to the late and sister to the present Duke of Manchester.

Mr. Thomas Stocker, to Mrs. Searle, widow of Mr. Thomas Searle, late of Gatcombe.

At Corhampton, Hants, William Trenchard, Esq. of a very ancient and respectable family at Wolveaton and Lytchet Matravers, in Dorsetshire, to the Right Hon. Lady Hester Amelia de Burgh, daughter to the late Earl, and sister to the present Marquis of Clanricarde.

Mr. John Robins, auctioneer, of the Great Piazza, Covent garden, to Miss Jane Crespin, of Stephen-street, Rathbone-place.

At Cheltenham, in Gloucestershire, John Fuller, Esq. of Park-street, Grosvenor-square, to Mrs. Read, relict of the Rev. Dr. Read, rector of Rotherfield-Peppard, Oxfordshire.

Mr. Alexander Crump, merchant, to Miss Jeanie Ewing, daughter of Mr. Walter Ewing, merchant, in Glasgow.

At Glasgow, Major Hector M'Niel, to Miss Esther Campbell, of Sunderland.

Mr. Millington, of Bishopsgate-street, to Miss Brogden, daughter of Mr. Deputy Brogden, of Alderfergate-street.

At Camberwell, Mr. John Barnes, of Newbury, to Miss Lane, of Downton, Wilts.

At St. Luke's, Chelsea, Mr. William Chippindall, of Great Queen-street, Lincoln's-inn-fields, to Miss Armitage, daughter of the late Robert Armitage, of Kennington, Esq.

Mr. Thomas Pomeroy, of Leadenhall-street, to Miss Phillis Thompson, of Goodman's-fields.

At Southampton, William Bryan, Esq. to Miss Williams, daughter of Thomas Williams, Esq. of that place.

At Sidmouth, in Devonshire, John Coulthurst, Esq. to Miss M. Reed, one of the daughters and coheirresses of William Reed, late of Holywell, in the county of Durham, Esq. deceased.

At East Grinstead, Sussex, Mr. James Malcolm, of Stockwell-place, Surry, to Miss Ready, of East Grinstead.

At Hoxen, in Suffolk, Robert Thrower, Esq. to Miss Ballard; their united ages make 32 years.

At Marybone, the Rev. Thomas Sandford, of Sandford Hall, Salo, to Miss Kennedy, eldest daughter of Dr. Kennedy, of Rathbone-place, physician to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales.

The Rev. J. Lempriere, of Pembroke College, Oxford, to Miss Willince, daughter of F. Willince, Esq. of Twickenham.

At Kensington, Mr. Crabb, of Shelley Hall, Essex, to Miss Bridges, of Kennington.

At Roehampton, Joseph Laurence Darvall, Esq. to Miss Wilkinson.

At Marybone, George Woodroffe, Esq. of Lincoln's-inn, to Mrs. Mackay, eldest daughter of Sir Samuel Hannay, Bart. Portland-place.

At Salisbury, in the presence of 250 persons, a venerable pair whose ages amount to 130: the avowed motive on the part of the lady, who is 84, is the laudable one of procuring an heir for her estate!

At Marybone, George Buggin, Esq. of Wigmore-street, to Miss Tapps, of Hinton Admiral, in the county of Hants. Also, George Ivison Tapps, Esq. of Hinton Admiral, to Miss Buggin, of Wigmore-street.

The Rev. Henry Robinson, vicar of Kendal, in Westmorland, to Miss Darby, of Diss, in Norfolk.

At Bath, William Blathwayte, Esq. of Dirham-house, Gloucestershire, to Miss Scott, youngest daughter of the late William Scott, Esq. of Great Barr, in Staffordshire.

D I E D.

At Aix la Chapelle, Jean Justy Ferdinand, Prince of Croy d'Havré and the Empire, Count de Priego, &c.

In Dublin, Mrs. Molyneux, sister of the Right Hon. Sir Capel Molyneux, Bart.

In the same city, the Hon. Miss Fitzgibbon, eldest daughter of the Lord Chancellor.

At Woodford, Henry Norris, Esq. aged 84.

At Bath, Nicholas Philips, Esq. master shipwright of the Royal Yard at Chatham.

John Chandler, Esq. at his house at Witely, near Godalming.

Mrs. Malyn, at her house in Berners-street.

In Merionethshire, Roger Jones, Esq. upwards of twenty-five years magistrate for that county.

At Hadleigh, Suffolk, Mrs. Clinch, wife of Mr. William Clinch, of Rotherhithe.

At Margate, where he went for the recovery of his health, Sir Thomas Skipwith, Bart.

At Jamaica, Mrs. Pemberton, wife of Captain Pemberton, of the first battalion of Royals.

Mr. Joseph Docwra, of Feering-hall, one of the people called Quakers, in his 70th year.

At Cork, Mrs. Margaret M'Carthy, alias Cogan, aged 103.

At Camira, Queen's County, aged 78, the Rev. Jeremy Marsh.

Miss Caroline Wilton, second daughter of the late G. Wilton, serjeant at law.

Mrs. Wells, wife of Mr. Wells, of Fleet-street.

In Jamaica, Mr. Henry Brown, sen. The ancestors of this gentleman went to Jamaica in the army, under Penn and Venables; and his maternal grandmother was the second English subject born there after the conquest.

At his house in Upper Wimpole-street, David Mitchell, Esq. formerly captain of the Fox East India ship.

Near Neuchâtel, in Switzerland, Miss Harriot Vezian.

At Northampton, Mrs. Sutton, wife of Alderman Sutton, of that place.

At Greenwich, Mrs. Hannah Mary Bonnin, a single lady, aged 70.

At Dalkeith, Mr. John Knox, formerly a bookseller in London.

At Barbers Hall, Montkwell-street, James Marye, Esq. aged 76, late clerk to the Company.

At Kettering, Northamptonshire, the Rev. Zechariah Rose, brother to the Rev. Mr. Rose, of Horteft, Suffolk.

In Dublin, Peter Lawrence, Esq. son of Walter Lawrence, Esq. of Bellene, in the county of Galway, a young gentleman just returned from his travels.

At his apartments in Newgate, the Rev. Mr. Withers, who had been some time confined there for a libel.

BANKRUPTS.

John Quilter, of St. Osyth, Essex, grocer and draper. James Scalby, of the parish of St. Clement Danes, Middlesex, man's mercer. John Ball, of Abbots Bromley, Staffordshire, grocer and soap boiler. Abraham Moses, late of Frome Selwood, Somersetshire, silversmith and pawnbroker. John Molineux, of Long-Acre, Middlesex, coachmaker. Clement Smith, now or late of Cawthon, Norfolk, grocer. John Gaddes, late of Stanwix Bank, in the parish of Stanwix, Cumberland, dealer in horses. John Gregson, of Rothwell, otherwise Rowell, of Northampton, draper. David Orr, of Newcastle upon Tyne, warehouselman. Henry Kyte, late of Rye, Sussex, merchant. John Hopkinson, of Carlton, in the parish of Snaith, Yorkshire, miller and cornfactor. Samuel Lamb, of High Holborn, Middlesex, haberdasher. George Brown, late of Earl Street, in the city of London, but now of Wells-street, Oxford-road, Middlesex, livery-stable-keeper. John Bailey, of Canterbury, Kent, cheesemonger. Arthur Tyrrell, late of Fleet-market, in the city of London, merchant and victualler. Isaac Alsop, of Cromer, otherwise Shipden, Norfolk, dealer and chapman. Andrew Davis, of the parish of Chappel Hill, Monmouthshire, butcher. John Barwick, of Canterbury, Kent, grocer. Christopher Hall, late of St. Martin's court, St. Martin's-lane, Middlesex, button-seller. Edward Lowe, of Whitecross-street, London, turner. Edmund Godsell, of Lower Thames-street, in the city of London, cooper. William Goodwin, late of Burdlem, Staffordshire, tallow-chandler. Samuel Aikwith, of Covent-garden, Middlesex, hatter. Thomas Edip, now or late of Kirkby Stephen, Westmoreland, tanner. William Turton and Thomas Penn, now or late of the parish of West Bromwich, Staffordshire, ironmongers and co-partners. Hermann Graumann, late of Mark-lane, and now of New Broad-street, London, and of Stamford-street, in the parish of Christ Church, Surry, merchant.

PRICE OF STOCKS IN JULY AND AUGUST, 1790.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per Cent. Reduc.	13 per Cent. Contol.	14 per Cent. Contol.	15 per Cent. Navy.	Long Ann.	Short Stock.	India Stock.	India Ann.	India Bonds.	India S. Sea Stock.	Old Stock.	Ann. 1790.	New Navy. 3 dif.	Exch. Bills.	Tontine	Lottery Tickets.
27	1724	74	735	95	112	12	124	157 1/2	69	49 pr.	49 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		97	15 9 6
28	1724	74	735	95	112	12	124	157 1/2	69	49 pr.	49 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		97	15 9 6
29	1724	74	735	95	112	12	124	157 1/2	69	49 pr.	49 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		97	15 9 6
30	1724	74	735	95	112	12	124	157 1/2	69	49 pr.	49 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		97	15 9 6
31	1724	74	735	95	112	12	124	157 1/2	69	49 pr.	49 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		97	15 9 6
1	1763	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		97 1/2	15 10 6
2	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
3	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
4	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
5	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
6	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
7	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
8	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
9	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
10	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
11	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
12	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
13	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
14	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
15	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
16	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
17	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
18	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
19	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
20	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
21	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
22	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
23	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
24	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
25	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
26	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
27	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
28	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
29	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
30	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6
31	1631	75 1/2	735	96 1/2	113 1/2	12 1/2	124 1/2	158 1/2	69 1/2	49 1/2 pr.	49 1/2 pr.	73 1/2	74 1/2	2 1/2		98 1/2	15 11 6

METEOROLOGICAL DIARY in LONDON, for August, 1790.

By Mr. W. Jones, Optician, Horologer,
Height of the Barometer and Thermo-
meter with Fahrenheit's Scale.

Days.	Barometer Inches, and 100th Parts.		Thermome- ter. Fahrenheit's.		Weather in August 1790.
	8 o'Clock Morning.	11 o'Clock Night.	8 o'Clock Morning.	11 o'Clock Night.	
1	29.98	29.67	60	68	Fair
2	29.48	29.48	58	62	Cloudy
3	29.51	29.5	57	63	Ditto
4	29.37	29.71	62	66	Change.
5	29.51	29.71	60	63	Fair
6	29.71	29.75	57	60	Rain
7	29.61	29.61	60	64	Showers
8	29.71	29.84	57	64	Cloudy
9	29.92	29.87	57	64	Ditto
10	29.82	29.82	64	71	Rain
11	29.89	29.83	65	76	Cloudy
12	29.80	29.84	62	69	Fair
13	29.88	29.93	62	69	Ditto
14	29.94	30	64	72	Ditto
15	30	30	62	74	Ditto
16	29.99	29.97	64	72	Ditto
17	29.99	29.99	66	75	Ditto
18	29.98	29.98	63	74	Ditto
19	29.92	29.81	64	76	Ditto
20	29.82	29.86	65	77	Ditto
21	29.85	29.97	68	78	Cloudy
22	29.99	29.99	63	75	Ditto
23	29.89	29.91	64	70	Ditto
24	29.94	29.82	69	76	Cloudy
25	29.70	29.75	67	70	Fair
26	29.76	29.94	63	68	Cloudy
27	29.80	29.87	64	68	Change.
28	29.87	29.86	57	65	Cloudy
29	29.81	29.43	54	64	Rain
30	29.53	29.71	57	60	Ditto

Corn-Exchange, London.

RETURNS OF CORN AND GRAIN. From August 9 to August 14, 1790.

	Quar- ters.	Price.	Avg. Pr. per. Qr.
Barley	5762	4594	4 11 4 5
Beans	1609	2092	11 21 6 0
Malt	1013	1773	9 01 15 3
Oats	2910	2977	1 81 0 5
Pease	536	912	11 61 14 8
Rye	533	409	11 51 8 3
R. Seed	754	1431	5 51 17 11
Wheat	4109	42287	5 22 14 7
Bigg			

LITERARY MAGAZINE & BRITISH REVIEW.



Angus Sc.

GEORGE BUCHANAN.

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